

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

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### CONTRIBUTION OF THE SCHOOLS TO THE WAR

MANY good things can be said about the schools and their contribution to the war. The average soldier has nearly four years more schooling than his father had a quarter-century ago. In the first World War only 20 per cent of the men in the Army had gone beyond Grade VIII; today 67 per cent have done so. Thirty-nine per cent of today's Army men graduated from high school; in the first World War, only 9 per cent were high-school graduates. Today's soldier reads with greater speed and comprehension, he speaks better, he computes more accurately. There is evidence, too, that those who have had the benefit of secondary-school attendance, especially the graduates, are better soldiers than those who have not. The training that the men in uniform received before they entered the service is the greatest single contribution which the schools of the nation have made to the war.

This was not enough, however. The

schools are now gearing themselves to provide additional training for those who are still in school but will soon enter the armed services. This need applies most specifically to sixteen- and seventeen-year-old boys who will soon be called for induction and, to a lesser extent, to girls who will enrol in the WAVES, the WACs, the SPARs, or the Marines. Pre-induction training has been outlined in two general areas: (1) pre-vocational or vocational preparation which will give the inductee a foundation for acquiring skill in one of the numerous Army specialties and (2) preparation for the common needs of all soldiers.

### *Training boys for induction*

A year ago Lieutenant General Somervell announced that sixty-three of every hundred men in the Army were specialists and that many of the men being inducted did not possess the necessary skills. Training is, of course, carried on within the Army; but, if pre-induction training could be given in secondary schools,

the period of preparation required in the Army could be lessened and the instruction could be improved. Five pre-induction bulletins were announced to enable boys soon to be inducted to learn, before induction, some of the skills necessary in the Army, in the interest of shortening the specialized training program after they enter the Army. *Fundamentals of Electricity*, *Fundamentals of Machines*, and *Fundamentals of Shopwork* comprised the "first line" of "Basic Courses," with *Fundamentals of Radio* and *Fundamentals of Automotive Mechanics* as second or "Applied Courses."

Today nine out of ten men inducted are receiving instruction for specialized tasks because of the refinement of classification of jobs within the Army. At the outset the War Department officials made it clear that they had no intention of trying to tell the high schools what the schools ought to teach. They were interested in telling the schools what Army needs were and in working with educational groups to make these needs known, but they left it to the schools to decide what should or could be done in redirecting the program to fit the known immediate needs of young men and, to a lesser extent, the needs of young women.

*Expansion of training programs* The pre-induction program had its inception on April 9, 1942. From the first, co-operation of the United States Office of Education was solicited. As indicated here-

after, that office and the Civilian Pre-induction Training Branch, Industrial Personnel Division, Army Services Forces, War Department, co-operated in preparing materials. The War Department assumed the responsibility for financing the printing and the distributing of these materials. Thus the High-School Victory Corps is becoming one of the means through which may be carried on the activities necessary to maintain the morale of high-school pupils and to give them a feeling that they have a share in the war effort. The Victory Corps also becomes one of the channels through which pre-induction materials may flow to the schools.

The original five pre-induction training courses contribute as follows to more than 600 Army jobs, approximately half of which have counterparts in civil life. Electricity contributes to 151 jobs; shopwork, to 188 jobs; machines, to 226 jobs; radio, to 35 jobs; and automotive mechanics, to 50 jobs. Approximately 35 textbooks are available for schools which wish to incorporate pre-induction training courses.

The schools have responded by re-training teachers and by organizing special courses. In February, 1943, according to reports received from chief state school officers, about 25 per cent of the high-school boys sixteen years of age or older were taking some one of the pre-induction training courses. Such a record a semester after the courses were announced, even assuming that state departments were

generous in their estimates, is a tremendous achievement by the school men of America. Abuses and carelessness have, of course, occurred. In one city, for example, every boy has been required, by administrative fiat, to take two pre-induction courses whether or not he wishes and whether or not it is to his best interest.

*Army specialized training* For most of the men entering the Army the pre-induction training courses are of undoubted value. A highly important but relatively small group of men will, however, follow a markedly different course of training. The Army has been increasingly handicapped by a shortage of men who are qualified for service as officers and who possess training in fields such as medicine, engineering, language, science, or mathematics. The Army Specialized Training Program was established to supply the Army's needs for such men. The plan is to have 150,000 men continually in training in this program. The program may take approximately 20 per cent of the boys graduating from high school each year. Of course this does not mean that 20 per cent of the annual graduates of each high school will be eligible. The general requirements for selection are (1) a score of 115 or better on the Army General Classification Test and (2) evidence that the best interest of the Army would be served by further training in A.S.T.P.

Since the Army Classification Test is not available for school use, school administrators and guidance workers might give a nationally used scholastic-aptitude test to select those boys whose scores are in the upper 20 per cent in terms of national norms. The boys who are prospective selectees for this program are those who have high intellectual ability and who have interests and previous training which would fit them for specialization in the professional fields mentioned. These boys profit most from taking college-preparatory courses rather than pre-induction courses, since they are likely to be sent to college after their basic military training.

Distribution of the boys to the most appropriate curriculums implies greater attention to guidance of the individual boy than has generally been furnished in the American high school. Whatever impetus is given to the guidance function is all to the good. It may direct guidance of students who are not destined for college into more immediately useful channels rather than placing a preponderance in college-preparatory courses; such a breaking-down of the educational daydream is desirable.

Even without other responsibilities, the schools would have a tremendous job to provide voluntarily the pre-induction courses for all boys for whom such courses would be of value. But there are general needs for all soldiers beyond the specialized needs which have been mentioned in the paragraphs above.

*Some pre-induction needs* Since the original five courses were announced, the Civilian Pre-induction Training Branch, by having educators live at the camps, has made analyses of current needs of the Army and of the characteristics of competent soldiers.

*Every soldier should understand the issues of the war.* The man who realizes that this is his fight serves more wholeheartedly and intelligently than does the man who merely gives unreasoning obedience. He should understand the background of the war, be familiar with the geography of the theaters of action, be able to follow intelligently the course of events.

A group of persons from the National Council for the Social Studies, in co-operation with the Civilian Pre-induction Training Branch and the United States Office of Education, has prepared a manual (soon to be published) which will help teachers of the social studies enrich their courses and prepare citizen soldiers for their service in the Army and for citizenship after the war.

*Every prospective soldier should understand the nature of military life.* Many young men, at the time of induction, undergo a needlessly severe emotional strain because they do not know what they face. Advance knowledge about the Army and the life of the soldier can help them greatly in adjusting readily to their new situation. Every prospective inductee will be helped by having information about (1) the operation of the Selec-

tive Service Act; (2) the processes of induction, classification, and assignment; (3) the organization of various parts of the Army; (4) the vocabulary, customs, and insignia of the services to which he may be assigned; (5) the range of occupational specialties in the Army; (6) the problems of group living peculiar to Army life; (7) the opportunities for education, specialization, specialized training, and promotion, with special reference to post-war jobs. For example, some young men are so naïve that, when told, "We get our shots tomorrow," they expect execution instead of inoculation, and a few, through fright, have "gone over the hill." This area may well become an important part of the guidance service which schools provide to boys who will soon be inducted.

*Every soldier must be physically fit to fight and live.* Physical fitness is of prime importance to the man in uniform. Vigor, stamina, and the ability to maintain good health under conditions of military life involve optimum physical development, knowledge of disease transmission and ways to avoid common diseases, and adherence to the rules of military sanitation and personal hygiene. Skill in the procedures of first aid and knowledge of proper food selection are important considerations.

Good mental health is also extremely important. Freedom from excessive worry, fear, anger, and frustration will enable the soldier to adjust more readily to military life and to perform his duties more effectively.



In this area schools have made great strides in furnishing physical-fitness programs to a much larger section of the enrolment than ever before. Materials on maintaining physical fitness through health are in preparation and should be of value in helping fit the boy for his career in the Army.

*Every soldier should have command of basic language skills.* Exact, simple communication is essential in warfare. Orders must be given, transmitted, and received promptly. Printed instructions must be read as a basis for some post-induction training. The reading of notices and the writing of letters are common experiences.

A group from the National Council of Teachers of English working with the Civilian Pre-induction Training Branch and the Office of Education are preparing a bulletin for the teacher of English, covering skills in listening, reading, speaking, writing, and vocabulary. In addition, the National Council of Teachers of English has published the excellent *Victory Corps Reading List*.

*Every soldier should be able to compute with accuracy and assurance.* The simple processes of arithmetic enter to a surprising degree into the daily life of the soldier. He needs arithmetic in managing his personal finances and, to some extent, in traveling. With few exceptions, he must also use arithmetical skills in his work. Estimating distances, weight, and size is a common experience. Some soldiers employ the fundamental processes in converting scales given on maps to actual dis-

tances. The cook or the baker computes the quantities required for the various ingredients in mixing dough. Arithmetic is used constantly by non-commissioned officers in charge of personnel and property accounting and by Army clerks.

A bulletin published as the October number of the *Mathematics Teacher* indicates that the minimum needs for a majority of soldiers are not higher algebra and trigonometry but relatively simple mathematical skills. The bulletin, prepared by members of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics in collaboration with the Office of Education and the Civilian Pre-induction Training Branch, will undoubtedly be hailed by teachers of mathematics and by school administrators.

#### SOME EARLY EFFECTS OF THE WAR UPON THE SCHOOLS

IT WAS obvious and inevitable that the war should affect the schools markedly and that one of the effects should be a change in enrolment. A report prepared by Emery M. Foster, chief of the Division of Statistics, and Benjamin W. Frazier, senior specialist in teacher training, and issued by the United States Office of Education (Circular No. 218, July, 1943) summarizes a few of the early findings:

By October 15, 1942, the effect of war upon the public schools of the United States was already pronounced. The total enrolment was declining sharply, particularly at the high-school level and more important for boys than for girls. The high-school subjects considered especially necessary in

connection with the war effort either had lessened enrolments or only small gains with the exception of sharp increases in physics and in pre-flight aeronautics. It was still too early at the time of the survey to evaluate the extent to which special courses in radio, electricity, automotive mechanics, and shopwork were being introduced into high-school curricula.

High-school enrolments had declined 7 per cent since 1939-40, the decreases being greater for boys than for girls and greater in cities with populations of 100,000 and over than in smaller cities. In the large cities the decrease in the enrolment of boys from October, 1941, to October, 1942, was 8.5 per cent. The report continues:

Because of the age of the pupils, the major losses are of course in the high school. Data by type of system show almost twice as great a percentage loss of boys as of girls for city school systems (7.4 per cent as compared with 4.4 per cent) and twice as great a loss of boys as of girls in rural school systems (6.6 per cent as compared with 3.2 per cent). The very large cities and the small independent school systems lost more than 8 per cent of their high-school boys and more than 5 per cent of their high-school girls in the one year from October, 1941, to October, 1942. The data also show that, while urban high schools lost both boys and girls at a somewhat higher rate than rural high schools, urban and rural losses were more nearly comparable at the secondary than at the elementary-school level.

What further changes will occur cannot be predicted with accuracy, but it is clear that the longer the war continues, the more serious will be the drain on the secondary school. Editorially the *School Review* of April, 1943, commented on how one city,

Oakland, California, has minimized this withdrawal.

The United States Office of Education also received data from 2,148 schools about the enrolment of Juniors and Seniors in ten high-school subjects. The report continues:

The most striking change has been in pre-flight aeronautics. On October 15, 1941, only 2,634 pupils in the reporting schools were enrolled in this subject, but a year later the same schools reported 35,515 pupils. The increase was much greater for boys than for girls. The only other large increase for boys and girls together for all types of school systems was in physics, where enrolments increased 8.5 per cent. The increases in mathematics, in trades and industry, and in physical education were slight but probably significant since general enrolments were decreasing.

In October, 1942, very few students had enrolled in the pre-induction courses sponsored by the War Department and the Office of Education. Comment in an earlier section of these news notes indicates how the picture changed after one semester.

#### NEW YORK EDUCATORS DRAW UP WORK-STUDY PLANS

A plan prepared by a committee of New York superintendents and submitted to State Commissioner of Education George D. Stoddard is summarized in the *New York Sun*. The plan provides for "released time" for students under eighteen years of age. At least twenty hours a week would be allowed for school attendance and a maximum of thirty hours for work. The New York educators do

not question the value of work experience but wish to make clear the value to young people of completing their secondary-school period before taking up full-time work. The work is to be spread through six days of the week. It is recommended, too, that the school "follow up by correspondence and visitation nongraduates to the age of eighteen in an effort to help plan continued educational experience."

The report recognizes, quite rightly, that the schools cannot do this job alone and that it is necessary to secure "the co-operation of state and local groups representing industry, trade, labor, the War Manpower Commission, as well as advisory boards for vocation and extension education." The committee recommends that guidance be provided on a twelve-month basis to assist in the articulation of school and work.

#### MILITARY DRILL IN SECOND-ARY SCHOOLS

**M**ANY boys in high school would like military drill; many amateurs in the community would be happy to furnish such drill, or their version of it. The matter has finally been settled officially in a letter from Secretary of War Stimson to Commissioner of Education Studebaker. The letter is reproduced below.

I have your letter asking whether the War Department recommends that military drill take the place of physical education in the curriculum of schools and colleges. I assume your question to apply only to the period of the present war and not to periods of peace.

The amount of military drill which can be given in schools and colleges can also be given after induction into the Army, in a relatively short period of time, and under the most productive circumstances. A good physical condition, however, cannot be developed in so short space of time, and the physical condition of a soldier is of prime importance to the War Department.

The War Department does not want to appear to advise upon the makeup of a curriculum, nor to go beyond outlining some of the elements which the Army believes would be advantageous in its recruits. Of these, a good physical condition is extremely important and a knowledge of basic military drill relatively unimportant.

The War Department therefore does not recommend that military drill take the place of physical education in the schools and colleges during this war period.

The War Department has no objection to the publication of this statement, provided it is quoted in its entirety.

Editorially we can only commend such a clear and sound statement. It will relieve many schools which cannot provide military drill and, we may hope, will give impetus to the physical-education program in those schools which have not yet developed adequate programs.

#### SCHOLARSHIPS FOR SELECTED HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES

**A** RECENT announcement from the War Department states that qualified high-school graduates between seventeen and eighteen years of age will be granted military scholarships providing for basic phase instruction in the Army Specialized Training Reserve Program. The Reserve Program will be limited to boys

who received qualifying scores on the pre-induction test administered last April 2 and on another test scheduled for November. The Army Specialized Training Reserve Program will be limited to twenty-five thousand volunteers, who will provide a direct flow of qualified young men toward the Army Specialized Training Program prior to their entering active military duty.

Thus the Army will provide an opportunity for boys of superior ability, who are not more than one year below selective-service age, to embark on a training program which will lead to careers in line with ability. Reservists will not be on active duty, nor will they wear military uniforms. At the end of the term in which the reservist reaches his eighteenth birthday, he will be sent to an Army Replacement Training Center for basic military training, followed by further training in an A.S.T.P. unit for those qualified. The military scholarship will provide for payment of tuition, messing, housing, and such medical care as is customary at the particular college or university, but it will not entitle the reservist to Army pay or benefits which are provided for soldiers on active duty.

In our opinion the scholarship program is important in that it supplements the Army Specialized Training Program and makes it possible for an able young man, irrespective of family ability to pay tuition, to attend an institution of higher education. In our further opinion, the citizens of the

United States will like so well the programs of training provided by the armed services for able young men, both reservists and soldiers, chosen without regard to financial ability to attend college, that this plan will not be discontinued. Such provision of educational opportunity is a concrete example of the extension of democracy. As we mentioned editorially in the *School Review* of October, 1942, provision at the secondary level is also necessary. The provision of college scholarships to seventeen-year-olds who have graduated from high school is a step in that direction.

#### MATERIALS FOR PUPILS

LAST spring appeared a carefully prepared document to indicate to pupils what was their part in the war. The fact that it has been attacked by one of the conservative columnists as "selling out to the New Deal" indicates that the pamphlet deals with controversial materials and that it is well done.

*My Part in This War: Helping on the Home Front*, issued by the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, attempts to explain the economic program of the government in wartime; to show how it affects the individual, his family, his community, and his nation; and to tell what each of us can do to make the program effective. If the program is not understood, it cannot succeed. If it does not succeed, the winning of the war is delayed, if not made impossible, and the

peace is endangered. Everyone wants to help, and this booklet tells how he can do so.

This ninety-six-page publication, prepared with the assistance of experts in several government agencies, treats of inflation, rationing, price and credit control, economic stabilization, emergency taxation, national conservation, and personal economy in wartime. It is written with great clearness and in a style that is interesting and easy to read. Though prepared primarily for youth in high schools, it is equally suitable for adults. It can profitably be read by every citizen. It may be obtained from the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D.C., for twenty-five cents a copy, with discounts in quantities of two or more.

#### YOUTH TRAINING IN WARTIME

THE Committee on Youth Needs of the New York State Teachers Association has published in the June, 1943, number of *New York State Education* a report entitled "Youth Training Service in Wartime." This report is the third pronouncement of the committee, the first two being "An Educational Program for the Youth of New York State" (appearing in September, 1940) and "Community Programs of Action for Youth" (appearing in June, 1941). Like its two predecessors, the third is worth careful reading. Because many youth are employed part time in industry, the committee emphasizes the following standards and safeguards:

1. Only youth who have reached their fourteenth birthday should be employed full-time or part-time in industry, commerce, or agriculture.

2. Whenever youth contemplate entering a wartime service, they should be guided and encouraged to complete special educational programs that will increase their competence, and school officials should provide such training within the facilities and financial resources available to them.

3. Youth under eighteen years of age should be employed for wartime work, only when the hours and conditions of employment are such as to safeguard their physical, social, and moral welfare. Youth fourteen and fifteen years of age should be employed only when qualified older workers are not available.

4. When pupils are released from school for full-time or part-time work, they should be guarded against undue loss of educational opportunities and service.

5. Employers should certify to the school authorities that a critical need exists for the labor of youth and that the employment will be in conformity with the state and federal laws governing the work of minors.

6. The instructional and placement services of the school should be redesigned in order to fit pupils more adequately for emergency employment opportunities. School officials should co-operate with civic, economic, social welfare, employer, labor, and farm groups to assist youth in adjusting their educational programs to work requirements and to safeguard the long-term values of education.

A section on youth morale emphasizes the need for adequate recreation, for greater attention to the counseling of young people about consumer education and about establishing a home, and for guidance toward military service or proper vocational choice. There appears an adequate description of



the services of the schools in the purchase of war savings bonds and stamps, in salvage campaigns, in the Victory Corps, and in pre-induction courses. The importance of physical fitness and means for achieving it in New York State are commented on at length. Of particular interest is the outline of a course, "Practical War-time Hygiene for Youth," including:

(a) Determination of health status and needs, (b) personal hygiene, (c) foods and nutrition, (d) rest and its relation to fatigue, (e) exercise in relation to work and recreation, (f) dental health, (g) vision and care of the eyes, (h) hearing and care of the ears, (i) heating and ventilation, (j) mental hygiene, (k) community hygiene, (l) safety and first aid.

Of especial interest is the section on "Training for Food Production." The services performed in New York State are briefly summarized as follows:

1. School and community victory gardens have been widely emphasized in all types of schools throughout the state.... During the current season approximately 140,000 victory gardens are being maintained by school youth under the direction of competent school personnel....

2. The Future Farmers of America.... are active within the state in uniting their effort in stepping up food production on the home farms to meet the minimum quotas prescribed by the Secretary of Agriculture....

3. Farm machinery repair services have been conducted throughout the current year in approximately three hundred high-school departments of agriculture.... More than twenty-six thousand items of major equipment have been brought to the centers for adjustment and repair....

4. Special training in commodity production with particular reference to milk, poultry products, commercial vegetables,

fruit, and in the production and conservation of food for farm families has been provided through the high-school agricultural departments of the state....

5. Through the volunteer Farm Cadet Victory Corps the labor of high-school youths has been made available to farmers as an important means of dealing with the current labor shortage.... During the fall of 1942 approximately twenty-five thousand of these youth were released from school for harvest work. For the 1943 season a veritable army of youth has volunteered for farm services in the Farm Cadet Victory Corps. The State War Council appropriated \$100,000 to assist in the recruiting, training, placing, and supervising services necessary to maintain this program at a high level of efficiency. Through the Agricultural Education Bureau specific direction has been provided for this state-wide service together with the setting-up of instructional materials for city and village schools and the maintenance of specific training services at the agricultural and technical institutes....

6. At the six agricultural and technical institutes two types of farm-training courses have been maintained: courses ranging from two to three months in length intended to equip young persons for a full year-round employment on farms, and courses ranging from one week to one month in length, intended to prepare persons for seasonal employment.

For those of our readers who are interested in more complete treatment, the entire pronouncement will be "required reading."

#### END OF THE N.Y.A.

**A**FTER eight years of existence, much of it stormy, the National Youth Administration was liquidated in the final day of the first session of the Seventy-eighth Congress. By a margin of one vote, the House Committee on Appropriations refused to



provide funds for this agency. The matter was not discussed in the House of Representatives because the agency was established by an administrative order rather than by an act of Congress, and therefore the issue could not be debated on the floor. Funds both for the in-school program and for the out-of-school program were inserted in the appropriations bill by the Senate Committee on Appropriations, again by a very close vote, and were approved by the Senate. In the conference committee the appropriations were stricken from the bill, and the agency was given an appropriation of three million dollars with which to wind up its affairs.

Strictly speaking, the agency was killed in the final hours of the Congress. It is perhaps equally accurate to say that the issue was decided in the November elections of 1942; for the vote in the House of Representatives on the N.Y.A. Amendment was 155 Democrats and 21 Republicans for the appropriation; 36 Democrats and 160 Republicans against the appropriation. Whether one thinks the N.Y.A. should have been terminated or not, the issue was settled on strictly party lines. Many educators, of course, made known to the legislators their opinions on both sides of the question. Those opposed to the N.Y.A. were better organized, however, and the congressmen opposed to N.Y.A. used these opinions to justify their position. Educators did not kill the N.Y.A., but many of them helped.

What have been the accomplishments of the N.Y.A. during its eight

years of operation? Approximately 620,000 young people were enabled to attend college or to continue in college without damage to their self-respect. More than 1,500,000 high-school boys and girls were enabled to continue in school through the six dollars a month that they could earn. Even in 1942-43, when the national income was the highest that it has ever been, the average annual income of the families whose children received help from the N.Y.A. at the high-school level was \$765. There are many such families, particularly in rural areas and in those parts of the country which have not been touched by the war prosperity. Unfortunately there are no funds available from any public source to equalize educational opportunity to the individuals from low-income families.

The second value of the N.Y.A. was that it enabled thousands of young people—nearly 2,750,000 different young persons, according to N.Y.A. statistics—to learn marketable skills. The agency concentrated its efforts in areas where facilities for learning such skills were most inadequate. For these two reasons many educators, including this editorial writer, supported the agency, recognizing that its personnel was human and that mistakes inevitably would be made.

In furnishing work to young people who in the early years of the agency's operations could not be absorbed into the labor market, many useful buildings were provided. For example, 3,710 new educational buildings or additions to existing structures were completed, and approximately 18,000

reconstructions or improvements were completed. Nearly 1,200 recreational buildings—gymnasiums, auditoriums, and the like—were constructed, and more than 2,000 improvements were undertaken. Literally thousands of recreation areas and parks were built or improved. Many other accomplishments could be added—there is no need to continue the list.

What will happen after the war? In the transferring of more than twenty million persons from war industries to peacetime pursuits and in the demobilizing of most of the ten or eleven millions from our armed forces, there will be dislocations and strains. No matter how well we plan, there are likely to be many unemployed. Youth now in school will, in all likelihood, face the greatest difficulty in adjustment to our productive economy. Unless special provision is made for young people, they will be particularly handicapped because of their youth, their lack of dependents, and the just claims of those who have served our nation in the armed forces or on the production lines. Some form of youth program will inevitably emerge after the war. Now is the time for educational statesmen to offer help in planning that program.

#### AN EXPERIMENT IN GUIDANCE

**G**UIDANCE in the secondary school has been accepted on faith or because of the eloquence of its supporters. Evidence of the value of specific techniques is needed so that practice can be modified, discarded, or im-

proved. A study by Percival W. Hutson and Arthur D. Webster, reported in the Spring, 1943, issue of *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, evaluates the results of vocational and educational guidance of 222 tenth-grade students in Ellwood City, Pennsylvania. It was decided to measure the degree of attainment of the following goals:

- A. Making wisely the decision to go to college or not to go
- B. Making a vocational choice in harmony with ability
- C. Choosing the following elective subjects in accordance with aptitude for them:
  1. French
  2. Shorthand
  3. Advanced algebra

As a control group, the eleventh-grade class which had not had benefit of guidance was used. This procedure, of course, provides only a rough control, but evidence indicates that the groups were comparable in ability.

Weekly home-room meetings were conducted for the tenth-grade pupils. Four weeks were devoted to a study of going to college; five, to choosing an occupation; and four weeks, to choosing subjects for the next year. Results of tests of intelligence, scholastic achievement, and mechanical ability and evidences of success in school as measured by marks were secured for all pupils in the experimental group. A prognostic test in French was also given to all who wished to study French.

The results indicated that approximately equal numbers of both groups

elected to go to college but that the members of the experimental group had chosen more wisely, since they had relatively better rank in class than had the control-group members. In the choice of an occupation, there was little evidence that either group had chosen wisely in terms of the job pattern in Ellwood City or Pennsylvania, although there were fewer unrealistic choices of professional occupations by the experimental group. In both of these categories there are factors, such as the wish of parents for preferred positions for their children and the high monetary rewards of certain occupations, which make realistic choices by high-school pupils difficult, if not impossible. In the choice of subjects there was a noticeable improvement of the experimental group over the control group.

Thus we have some evidence of the value of guidance in a specific school. Editorially we express the hope that other schools will undertake an evaluation of the guidance program which they furnish their students.

#### BACK TO SCHOOL!

**U**NDER this caption an appeal for a campaign to encourage youth to return to school is being circulated by the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor in co-operation with the United States Office of Education. In a twelve-page leaflet these federal agencies present a summary of the facts regarding youth employment and suggestions for or-

ganized school and community efforts to induce those boys and girls whose services in industry are not essential to the war effort to avail themselves of their present opportunity to attend school.

It is noted that in 1942 more than 900,000 boys and girls under eighteen years of age obtained certificates permitting them to enter full-time or part-time employment. Of this number, 156,000 were under sixteen. In the early months of 1943 more than twice as many work certificates were granted as during the corresponding months of 1942, and the rate of increase was greater for the fourteen- and fifteen-year-old than for the sixteen- and seventeen-year group. It is asserted, moreover, that large numbers of children have entered employment without certificates.

In the belief that many of the boys and girls who are inclined to continue in gainful employment can be returned to the schools, the Children's Bureau and the Office of Education propose a nation-wide campaign to convince the children, their parents, and their employers of the urgency of this move. School authorities are asked to take the initiative in this campaign, seeking the co-operation of the organized agencies interested in the welfare of youth in each community. The leaflet now being circulated sets up a plan for an appeal to young workers in industry which may be used in the effort to induce them to resume their school work:

1. America needs trained leaders—now and later.

..... school helps to build leaders and to train technicians. The Army needs youth who have had advanced courses in mathematics and sciences. You'll make a better soldier if you go to school now. You'll make a better worker if you get your training now.

2. Your health and your strength are worth a great deal more to you and your nation than any dollars you earn.

..... school helps to build you up. Go in for all the sports you like. Team up with your schoolmates and help them get toughened up.

3. Sure it's fun to earn money, to be able to buy things and pay for them out of your own pocket.

..... but it will be as much fun later as it is now, and going to school and learning as much as you can now will help you hold down later a better job than you can hold down now.

4. Maybe you *are* strong enough and bright enough to carry both school and a job.

..... good—but don't run the risk of taking on too heavy a load. If you can keep up with your classes, get the sleep and play you need, keep healthy, and still do a job, our hats are off to you. But if you try too much and fail, none of us can be proud of you.

5. You are proud—as we are—that in our country so many young men and women are high-school and college graduates.

..... that's something we have a right to feel proud about. We won't be able to feel proud if you and you and you don't help us keep our record high, and even better it.

6. It's smart to get your schooling now.

..... break off from your classes now, and it will be all the harder to come back to them later. Don't get out of step—your

classmates will not wait for you. Learning comes easiest when you are young.

7. Are you as wise as our wisest men? They know how schooling counts.

..... Jefferson said: "Educate and inform the whole mass of people. Enable them to see that it is to their interest to preserve peace and order, and they will preserve them. They are the only sure reliance for the preservation of our liberty."

It is also proposed that the co-operation of parents, employers, and other citizens of the community be enlisted, such arguments as the following being presented for their consideration.

1. We are fighting this war for our children, not asking them to fight it for us. .... however much we would like to have their help, their health and their future must come first. These can be protected best if our boys and girls keep on with their schooling.

2. Don't be a dodger. It is your responsibility to make sure your children get all the learning they can use.

..... and get it now when it comes easiest. Don't count on them to do the jobs that you should do. Don't count on them to earn money that you can do without.

3. Better and wiser than you?

..... honestly now, isn't it true that is what you would like your children to be? School can help them become so. School that is skipped now may never be made up. ....

This leaflet may be obtained upon application to the Children's Bureau or to the United States Office of Education.

PAUL B. JACOBSON

## WHO'S WHO FOR OCTOBER

*Authors of news notes and articles* The news notes in this issue have been prepared by PAUL B. JACOBSON,

principal of the University High School, assistant professor of education, and director of radio instruction in the Naval Training School at the University of Chicago. CHARLES W. BOARDMAN, professor of education at the University of Minnesota, surveys the literature concerned with the success of students who entered college at an early age and concludes that the findings lend support to the proposal of admitting selected high-school Seniors to college. W. S. GUILER, professor of education and director of remedial instruction at Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, and H. B. HOFFMAN, teacher of algebra at Central Junior High School, Marion, Ohio, describe an experiment undertaken "to discover the effect on achievement both in computational arithmetic and in algebra when the time ordinarily spent on algebra alone is divided between remedial arithmetic and algebra." E. C. O. BEATTY, at present a member of the armed forces and formerly a professor in the Department of Social Sciences at Northern Illinois State Teachers College, De Kalb, Illinois, discusses the effect that the innate nature of man must have on the teaching and the content of the social studies. FAY WARD LITTLE, principal of the Paint

Lick High School, Paint Lick, Kentucky, reports the findings of a survey conducted among former pupils of small rural high schools in order to obtain their reactions to the schools' offerings. LILLIAN C. PARHAM, teacher of social studies in the Stuart Junior High School, Washington, D.C., describes her plan for teaching pupils to interpret the news disseminated through various devices. GORDON N. MACKENZIE, on leave from his position as associate professor of education at the University of Wisconsin, and ORVIN T. RICHARDSON, graduate student at the University of Chicago, present a list of selected references on the organization of secondary education.

*Reviewers of books* LEO F. SMITH, member of the Educational Research Committee at Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute. LIEUTENANT RUSSELL T. GREGG, of the United States Naval Reserve, on leave from his position as associate professor of secondary education at Syracuse University. BABETTE LEMON, teacher of English in the Laboratory Schools at the University of Chicago. J. M. MCCALLISTER, director of personnel service at Herzl Junior College, Chicago, Illinois. MARGARET MEANS, teacher of economic and political geography at the Bloomington High School, Bloomington, Illinois.



## FINDINGS FROM SELECTED STUDIES ON EARLY ADMISSION TO COLLEGE

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ON NOVEMBER 22, 1942, the Educational Policies Commission adopted a resolution proposing, as a war-emergency program, the educational acceleration of selected high-school pupils by admitting them to college at the completion of Grade XI of high school. This resolution has precipitated widespread discussion of the merits of such acceleration of students, approval and disapproval being expressed by individuals or groups representing both secondary and higher education. Some of this discussion has misrepresented the proposal and confused the issues, for it has been phrased in language which has seemed to suggest that any student who may wish to do so is to be permitted to enter college at the completion of Grade XI. The resolution specifically states, however, that only selected students who, in the judgment of high-school and college authorities, will profit from a year's college education are to be granted the privilege of entering college at the close of Grade XI.

In an attempt to determine the issues which have been raised in the discussion of this proposal, a survey was made of all the articles and

editorials appearing in professional periodicals between January 1 and May 1, 1943. From this survey the following issues seem to emerge: (1) Do young students possess sufficient mental ability and maturity to achieve successfully in college courses? (2) Are not the staff, curriculum, methods of instruction, and equipment at the Senior year in high school better adapted to serve the needs of these young students than are similar agencies at the Freshman year in college? (3) Will not such students be better served by acceleration within the secondary school so that essential learnings and experiences may be acquired before entering college rather than by acceleration as a result of skipping the final year of high school? (4) Do such young students possess sufficient social and emotional maturity to be accepted socially by students of normal college age, to participate successfully in extra-curriculum activities in college, and to acquire training and experience in traits such as leadership?

Acceleration is not a new concept in American education. The literature relating to the articulation of secondary and higher education, particularly that published since 1900, contains



many reports of studies of acceleration. The findings of these studies should be of value in the present discussion of the issues arising from the proposal of the Educational Policies Commission. Since an exhaustive review of the studies of accelerated college entrants is not possible within the limits of this report, the purpose here will be to review selected studies which are believed to be representative of the whole body of the literature.

#### ACHIEVEMENT IN COLLEGE OF YOUNG HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES

The fact that students enter college at less than the normal entrance age is a matter of common knowledge, but the amount of such acceleration is not so well known. In those states which have a twelve-grade school system, the normal age for graduation from high school is eighteen years, the range for the normal age usually being from seventeen years and six months to eighteen years and five months. McNeely (7) in 1937 reported the ages at entrance of 6,434 students in the colleges of arts and sciences of 22 universities, revealing that 1,344 students (20.9 per cent of the total) were seventeen years and five months of age or less. In other words, slightly more than one-fifth of these students were accelerated. Furthermore, 533 students (8.3 per cent of the total group) were less than seventeen years of age. Of course all these accelerants were graduates of high school, for graduation was the *sine qua non* for college entrance, but it seems apparent

that a considerable body of young students are now being admitted to our colleges.

How well do such young students achieve in college courses? One of the earliest studies of age at entrance and achievement was made by Holmes (3), who analyzed the records of 5,769 men who entered Harvard University between 1902 and 1912, inclusive. He reported that young students tended to make higher marks than older students. From the data he reached the following conclusion:

They prove that youth, in itself considered, is no bar to a creditable college career. They prove that college conditions do not put young men at a fatal disadvantage; they dispose of the vague conviction that college life is too much for the boy of seventeen. . . . The college may with confidence urge parents to send their boys to college young [3: 607, 609].

Another early study is that of Husband (5), who in 1923 studied the records of 224 men who entered Dartmouth College under seventeen years of age, comparing their scholastic achievements with those of all other men in their classes. He found that the average percentage of the latter who earned their degrees was 55 but that the percentage of the young students was 75. He reported that almost 25 per cent of the young students received honors at graduation as compared with 10 per cent of other students and that 46 per cent entered graduate schools as opposed to 30 per cent of the others.

Studying the graduates of Missouri high schools who ranked highest scho-

lastically in their graduating classes and who entered the University of Missouri, Zeigel (13) found that they were, on the average, 1.6 years younger than the other students, that they excelled the regular students in scores on the American Council Psychological Examination, and that they tended to persist longer in the University and to graduate earlier than the normal students.

Payne studied the relation between age at entrance and achievement of students in the College of the City of New York, reporting that students who were younger at entrance surpassed the older students in intelligence-test scores, "are better college material and after the first term fit into the college routine much better than the older students" (9: 293).

In a study of almost two thousand students in a "large number" of high schools and colleges, Odell (8) found that students aged sixteen or seventeen at entrance received higher marks both in college and in high school than did those who were eighteen years of age or older and that the marks decreased by an average of approximately 1.5 points for each year of advance in age over sixteen years. He also found that 31 and 32 per cent, respectively, of those sixteen and seventeen years old at entrance graduated from college, while only 25 per cent of those eighteen years old and 21 per cent of those nineteen years old at entrance graduated from college.

One of the best controlled experi-

ments dealing with age at entrance and college achievement was made by Sarbaugh (10) at the University of Buffalo. She paired fifty-seven students each sixteen years of age or younger with fifty-seven students each eighteen years of age, on the bases of sex, scores on the American Council Psychological Examination, scholastic rank in the graduating class of high schools of similar size, and average marks on the Regents' examinations. The two groups earned practically equal average marks in the Freshman year, 4.25 for the accelerated and 4.23 for the control group. Seventy-seven per cent of the accelerated group and 76 per cent of the control group either graduated from the Arts College or transferred to a professional school at the University of Buffalo. Both groups were identical in the proportions earning scholastic honors—30 per cent for each group. When sex, intelligence, and scholastic ability are equated, apparently students two years accelerated achieve as well in college as do their older classmates.

In 1939 Terman (12) reported a second follow-up study of the persons who were included in his studies of genius. Contact had been maintained with 93 per cent of the original number. He found that the mean age for entrance to college was seventeen years, that nearly 90 per cent of the boys and 85 per cent of the girls went to college, and that of the entrants 95 per cent of the boys and 90 per cent of the girls graduated. The achievement of these students was superior; al-

though they averaged two years younger than their classmates, they were three times as likely to graduate with honors. As Terman comments, "The earlier they enter college, the better work they do there, at least down to an entrance age of fifteen years" (12: 68).

So far as scholastic achievement, persistence in college, and scholastic honors are concerned, all these studies show the same trend. Students entering college at seventeen years of age or younger achieve as well as older students of equal ability and scholastic aptitude, and they achieve far better than the average student entering college at normal age or older. Since all the students in these studies were high-school graduates, it is evident that they were also accelerated in high school and that they had received whatever values accrued from being exposed to the instructional activities in Grade XII. Hence the only conclusion that can be drawn from these studies is that students who enter college young are able to achieve successfully.

#### SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT IN COLLEGE OF YOUNG HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES

Using a questionnaire, Silverman and Jones (11) obtained the opinions of college students and alumni who had entered college at seventeen and a half years of age or younger and those who had entered at more than the normal age concerning (1) the optimum age for entrance and (2) any difficulties they may have had in be-

coming adjusted to the college situation both socially and scholastically. Responses were received from 903 students, divided approximately equally between the two age groups.

The younger group felt that they should have entered college a little later, and the older group felt that they should have entered a little earlier. The suggested optimum ages tended to regress toward the average age of eighteen years, but the changes in age were very small and in no instance actually reached eighteen years. The young group believed it was better to enter college at least six months younger than normal age, and the older group felt that somewhat more than normal age was more desirable.

Only 5 per cent of the younger group and 2 per cent of the older group felt that, because of their age, they did not enjoy social life as much as the average student. The difference between the groups was not statistically significant. Likewise, 6.72 per cent of the younger group and 2.43 per cent of the older group felt that age handicapped them in their efforts to become leaders in college activities, and 4.28 per cent of the younger and 2.43 per cent of the older group did not participate in athletics because of age. The significant fact in these findings is that approximately 95 per cent of the younger group felt no handicap resulting from age in any of these three types of activities in college.

Perhaps the most interesting finding of Silverman and Jones was that

approximately 33 per cent of the younger group felt that, because of age, they lacked the experience necessary to study and discuss social, economic, sociological, and philosophical problems, whereas only 16 per cent of the older group felt this same handicap. However, according to Silverman and Jones, "A study of achievement of young students on an extensive test does not show any inferiority of performance on their part" (11: 71-72). The authors conclude that those of the younger group who felt handicapped in their study or discussion of such fields were not actually handicapped and suggest that these feelings of disability resulted from their superior standards of achievement.

In the study by Sarbaugh (10) at Buffalo, unsigned questionnaires were used to obtain information concerning difficulties in academic or social adjustment found by either the younger or the older groups, but a code was used so that the respondents could be identified. Small numbers of both groups reported that they had some academic difficulties, but the proportions were approximately equal and the differences were not statistically significant. However, the students in the younger group who felt a difficulty achieved in the specific field as well as, or better than, the older group. Sarbaugh suggested that the feelings of difficulty in academic work expressed by the younger group were due to higher standards held by them. This conclu-

sion tends to corroborate the conclusions of Silverman and Jones.

Sarbaugh also discovered that there was little difference between the two groups in the number of extra-curriculum activities which interested them most, the younger group reporting interest in an average of 2.13 activities and the older group, in an average of 2.16 activities. Both groups participated in the same types of activities. To the extent that participation in activities is a measure of social adjustment in college, the group two years younger than normal age seemed to be as well adjusted as the older group.

Sarbaugh also asked the younger students whether they felt a handicap in secondary school or in college because of their age. In considering the response to this query, it should be kept in mind that members of this group were only sixteen years of age when entering college, two years younger than the normal age for entrance. Fifty-nine per cent reported that they felt some handicap in high school, 46 per cent stating that the handicap was of a social nature. Only 39 per cent reported feeling no handicap in high school. In college, however, 53 per cent reported that they felt no handicap; 32 per cent reported a social handicap; and 10 per cent, a physical handicap. It should be noted that the acceleration of these students occurred primarily in the elementary grades; only 36 per cent finished high school in three years or less, and 64 per cent took the full four years or more in high school. Young as they

were at college entrance, fewer of these students felt a handicap in college than in high school. This fact seems to suggest that they were able to make better adjustment to the older college students than they did to older high-school students.

Engle (2) studied the effects of school acceleration on the personality and the social adjustment of 136 high-school and 165 university students. All the accelerated high-school pupils had entered high school before their thirteenth birthday, and the university students had entered college before their seventeenth birthday. Each accelerant was paired, on the bases of sex, grade location, intelligence, and school marks, with a student who was from one year to one year and eleven months older. The measures used were the Cowan Adolescent Personality Schedule and a questionnaire concerning activities, social life, and attitude toward the skipping of grades.

Engle found that the participation in activities and in social life of the accelerated groups, both in high school and in college, was different from that of the control groups. The accelerated groups went to the theater and to movies more than the control groups and engaged in other activities more. The older groups, in both high school and college, went to parties and dances more and had more "dates."

The differences between the mean scores of the accelerated and the control groups on the personality schedule were small, and none was significant,

the critical ratio (0.8) indicating that the groups were quite homogeneous so far as this measure was concerned. To the inquiry concerning the skipping of grades, 22 per cent of the accelerated high-school boys and 16 per cent of the high-school girls replied that it was a handicap. For the accelerated university students, these proportions were 42 per cent of the men and 15 per cent of the women. On the personality inventory the scores of the groups who felt that the skipping of grades was a handicap showed a tendency toward less satisfactory adjustment than the scores made by those who believed that acceleration was not a handicap, but the differences were not statistically significant, except for the university women.

All the groups who felt that the skipping of grades was a handicap participated in activities more than those who did not feel it a handicap, and all groups except university women had more "dates" than those who did not feel handicapped. On the whole, Engle concluded, the accelerated groups who felt that the skipping of grades was a handicap in social life and activities participated at least as much as those who did not have this feeling. He suggested (1) that the feeling of being handicapped on the part of the accelerated group arose from their feeling that they were different from their fellows; (2) that parents, teachers, or others emphasized whatever differences may have been present by talking about them before the younger students; and



(3) that many parents attempted to exercise greater home control over the younger than over the older students.

Terman (12), in the follow-up of the groups in his study of genius, stated that in both high school and college these students received more than their proportionate share of class and student-body honors and participated more extensively than their older classmates in all extra-curriculum activities except athletics.

The conclusions from these studies of the ability of accelerated college students to adjust themselves to the social life and activities in college seem fairly clear. Apparently very few accelerated students find any difficulty in becoming adjusted to academic work in college, and the small proportion reporting such difficulties perform as well as their young classmates who report no difficulties and as well as, or better than, their older fellows. Likewise, students who are markedly young at college entrance have sufficient social and emotional maturity to be accepted in the social life and activities in college. In general, the proportions of older students who seem to have difficulties in adjustment in college are very similar to those of the younger students. Youth, *per se*, does not seem to be a handicap to adjustment to the college situation.

#### COLLEGE ACHIEVEMENT OF NONGRADUATES

The studies of accelerated college entrants which have just been reviewed are all concerned with students

who had had four years of high-school education and were high-school graduates. Accelerated students who have completed high school may be quite different in their abilities from students who enter college without any of the experiences which would be obtained during Grade XII. Hence attention will now be directed to the reports of experimental studies in which students have been admitted to college at the end of Grade XI. Although such experimental studies are few in number and are limited to smaller colleges in the Midwest, the findings may have significant implications for the issues raised by the proposal to admit selected students to college at the end of Grade XI.

Hotz (4), as chairman of a committee, has reported an experiment in the Little Rock (Arkansas) Junior College in which students who had completed Grade XI in high school but who had not finished Grade XII were admitted to the Freshman year in the Junior College. Only students whose scholastic performance in Grades X and XI placed them in the upper quarter of the whole eleventh grade in scholarship were selected for admission. In addition, consideration was given to the "intelligence ratings" of the students. In 1933 forty such students, having an average deficiency of 3.6 units of twelfth-grade work, were admitted to the Junior College. A control group of forty-four students was selected at random from the Freshman entrants who had graduated from high school and entered the



Junior College in normal fashion. The median age of the experimental group was 16.8 years and of the control group, 18.5 years. On the basis of scores on a test of mental ability and on an English test, twenty-two equivalent pairs were formed from the larger control and experimental groups. The median age of this experimental group was 16.3 years and of the control group, 17.6 years. In 1934 a second experimental group of seventeen students was admitted to the Junior College, selected by the same criteria as the 1933 group. Three control students were paired with each of these seventeen students, test data similar to those used in 1933 being employed. The class-hour load of all the paired students was equated so that the average load of the respective experimental and control groups each semester did not vary by more than one-tenth of a semester hour.

It is unfortunate that the published data concerning the scholastic performance of the two experimental classes are not complete. The information available is presented in Table 1. From these data Hotz concluded that the experimental groups achieved as well in the Junior College as did the control groups and that the younger groups entered and graduated from four-year colleges in markedly larger proportions than did the older groups. While larger proportions of the control groups earned honors in the Junior College, the experimental groups graduating from four-year colleges earned honors in proportions at

least equal to the control groups. Hotz concluded that the experimental groups did not experience any appreciable handicaps in their college work as a result of skipping Grade XII.

TABLE 1

SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT AND PERSISTENCE IN COLLEGE OF ACCELERATED AND CONTROL STUDENTS IN LITTLE ROCK JUNIOR COLLEGE\*

MEASURE OF ACHIEVEMENT	GROUPS ENTERING SEPTEMBER 1933		GROUPS ENTERING SEPTEMBER 1934	
	Accelerated	Control	Accelerated	Control
Grade-point average:				
First semester.....	1.56	1.59	1.72	1.51
Second semester....	1.67	1.62	.....	.....
Third semester.....	2.02	1.73	.....	.....
Percentage graduated from Little Rock Junior College.....	70	70	70	55
Percentage earning honors in the Junior College.....	18	23	12	16
Percentage graduated from four-year college.....	50	23	41	25
Percentage earning honors in four-year college.....	9	9	6	4

\* Adapted from data presented by Hotz (4).

A report of a small experiment at Cornell College (Mount Vernon, Iowa) has been made by McConnell (6). Students were admitted to the Freshman year directly from Grade XI on the basis of achievement in certain tests. Only eight students had been admitted under this program during the three years up to the time of McConnell's report. The numbers were too small for statistical comparisons, but case studies were made of each stu-

dent. All the students were doing satisfactory work in the college, and some were doing superior work. No social or other personality difficulties had been encountered. No special adjustments were made for these students except that at entrance to college attempts were made to articulate their programs of study with their high-school backgrounds. Parents and high-school authorities were unanimous in their approval of the accomplishments of the students, commenting on the stimulus to growth and achievement that they had received.

The experimental program under which the University of Louisville has admitted students at the end of Grade XI has been reported by Detchen (1). Students selected for admission under this experiment must be at or above the fiftieth percentile on psychological, reading, and English tests. In addition, the students must reach the median of Louisville high-school Seniors on the Sones-Harry High School Achievement Test. Recommendations from the high-school principal and teachers and interviews with the parents of each applicant are required.

Students admitted under the experimental program were matched with regularly admitted students on the bases of sex and of standing in intelligence, reading, and English-usage tests. Special care was taken to assure an age difference of one year between each experimental and control student. Because of University requirements, the programs of students in the Freshman year at the University of

Louisville were quite identical, but in later years there may be some divergence. No special adjustments were made for instruction of the experimental groups. The measures of achievement used were marks earned in courses, average scholastic point standings, and ratings on the National Sophomore Tests.

Students were admitted to this experimental program during the years 1934-38, a total of thirty-five students being accepted. The thirteen students in the first group, admitted in 1934, were graduated in 1938. However, no final report on the experiment has yet been published. Progress reports indicate that both the experimental and the control groups have achieved alike, the scholastic standings of both groups averaging 1.6 points.

Participation in social and extra-curriculum activities was measured by the time spent in such pursuits. During the first semester the experimental groups spent much less time in such activities. During the second semester, however, the experimental groups spent 230 hours monthly in "dates," as compared with 241 hours spent by the control groups. The experimental groups also spent 280 hours monthly in extra-curriculum activities, as compared with 260 hours spent by the control groups. The younger students have held positions of leadership in publications, fraternal organizations, dramatics, athletics, and other student activities.

In response to an inquiry concerning their attitudes toward skipping the

final year in high school, the students in the experimental group reported unanimously in favor of the acceleration program. They indicated that, if they had the choice to make again, in the light of their experience and knowledge they would choose to enter college at the end of Grade XI.

Although the number of these experimental studies of the admission of students to college at the end of Grade XI is limited, all possess certain common characteristics. The accelerated students in each case were selected on the basis of intelligence and of performance on one or more standard tests. In age they were one year or more younger than the normal college entrant. No special adjustments were made for them in college, all pursuing the usual college courses in the regular classes. However, the findings of these studies all have the same trend: skipping Grade XII does not seem to have deprived the students of any essential learnings or experiences necessary for college success, for the accelerated students achieved as well as, or better than, the normal college entrants who were high-school graduates. It seems that such selected students possess adequate mental ability and mental maturity to achieve successfully in college. Likewise, so far as evidence is available, it seems to indicate that these young students possessed sufficient social and emotional maturity to be accepted by students of normal age, to participate in college activities, and to acquire training and experience as leaders in college activities.

#### A RECOMMENDATION

Although the findings reported here do not prove the case, they offer considerable support to the proposal of the Educational Policies Commission that selected students be admitted to college when they have attained Senior status in high school. Rather than arbitrarily opposing or refusing to cooperate in this proposal, it would seem far wiser for our colleges and secondary schools to join in an experiment in the selection and early admission to college of superior college-bound students. Using proper measures and proper controls both in the secondary school and in college, such an experimental program could add much not only to our knowledge about superior students but also to our knowledge of better practices and procedures in their education.

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## DIVIDING MATHEMATICS TIME BETWEEN ARITHMETIC AND ALGEBRA

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\*

**S**URVEYS of achievement show clearly that a large proportion of individuals who have completed their formal schooling in arithmetic cannot be relied on to do accurate work in computation. Included in the surveys were approximately two thousand persons ranging in grade level from Grade IX<sup>1</sup> through the first year in college.<sup>2</sup> The nature and extent of the computational incompetencies of a group of 238 ninth-grade pupils are made apparent by the error-quotient data presented in Table 1. The error quotient is "determined by using the frequencies of error for an individual or a group as a numerator of a fraction in which the denominator shall represent chances for error."<sup>3</sup>

Analysis of Table 1 shows that the mean error quotient was 35 in whole numbers, 37 in fractions and mixed

numbers, 46 in decimals, 73 in percentage, and 76 in practical measurements. When specific computational abilities are considered, it is found that the error quotient was above 25 in twenty-one of the twenty-five abilities, above 50 in eleven abilities, and above 75 in seven abilities. For all twenty-five abilities the error quotient was 54. Analysis of other error data, which cannot be presented here, shows that, of 1,063 college Freshmen, one-fourth or more manifested weakness in nineteen of the twenty-five abilities listed in Table 1; one-third or more, in fourteen abilities; and one-half or more, in four abilities.

The seriousness of the situation revealed by the survey data lies in the fact that deficiencies in computational skills impose serious handicaps on the persons concerned. They will hinder the individual in his mental reactions whenever quantitative elements are involved, whether these elements are encountered in school studies or in the practical affairs of life. It is significant that certain war industries, military establishments,

<sup>1</sup> W. S. Guiler, "Computational Shortcomings of Ninth-Grade Pupils." Unpublished study.

<sup>2</sup> W. S. Guiler, "Computational Shortcomings of College Freshmen." Unpublished study.

<sup>3</sup> Martin J. Stormzand and M. V. O'Shea, *How Much English Grammar?* p. 14. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1924.

and teacher-training institutions have found it necessary to institute remediation programs in order to overcome the computational deficiencies of individuals who have been the

are devoting exclusively to ninth-grade algebra could be used to improve pupil status in computational arithmetic without sacrificing pupil attainment in algebra. Stated more

TABLE 1  
ERROR QUOTIENTS OF 238 NINTH-GRADE PUPILS IN DIFFERENT PHASES OF  
COMPUTATION AND IN SPECIFIC COMPUTATIONAL ABILITIES\*

Phases of Computation and Specific Abilities Measured	Error Quotient†	Phases of Computation and Specific Abilities Measured	Error Quotient†
<b>Part I. Whole numbers:</b>		<b>Part IV. Practical measurements:</b>	
1. Addition.....	30	16. Addition.....	65
2. Subtraction.....	17	17. Subtraction.....	85
3. Multiplication.....	43	18. Multiplication.....	76
4. Short division.....	38	19. Division.....	97
5. Long division.....	47	20. Reduction.....	58
Mean for Part I.....	35	Mean for Part IV.....	76
<b>Part II. Fractions and mixed numbers:</b>		<b>Part V. Percentage:</b>	
6. Addition.....	25	21. Finding a percentage of a number..	41
7. Subtraction.....	47	22. Finding what percentage one number is of another.....	66
8. Multiplication.....	42	23. Finding a number when a percentage of it is known.....	98
9. Division.....	41	24. Finding the result of a percentage of increase or of decrease of a given number.....	73
10. Manipulation.....	31	25. Finding the percentage of increase or of decrease of one number on another.....	91
Mean for Part II.....	37	Mean for Part V.....	73
<b>Part III. Decimals:</b>		Mean for Parts I-V.....	54
11. Addition.....	21		
12. Subtraction.....	32		
13. Multiplication.....	5		
14. Division.....	88		
15. Manipulation.....	88		
Mean for Part III.....	46		

\* All computations were based on original test scores.

† Error quotients were computed by dividing the number of wrong answers by the number of chances of obtaining wrong answers. Decimal points have been dropped from the quotients in the table.

victims of the low standards of achievement which have obtained in many of our public schools.

With the situation thus briefly depicted in mind and with the hope of doing something to alleviate it, the writers instituted an experimental study designed to discover whether some of the time which many schools

specifically, the purpose of the study was to discover the effect on achievement both in computational arithmetic and in algebra when the time ordinarily spent on algebra alone is divided between remedial arithmetic and algebra. The procedures used and the results attained are reported in this article.



## SOURCE OF DATA

The data on which the study is based were derived from scores made on tests in computational arithmetic and in elementary algebra, which were given during the first semester of the 1941-42 school year to 109 pupils in the Central Junior High School at Marion, Ohio. The pupils were tested in arithmetic at the beginning and at the end of the semester coinciding with the inception and the completion of the remedial program. Two equivalent forms of the Christofferson-Rush-Guiler Analytical Survey Test in Computational Arithmetic<sup>1</sup> were used for the initial and final measurement in arithmetic. This test covers five phases of computation: whole numbers, fractions and mixed numbers, decimals, practical measurements, and percentage. Five abilities are included in each phase of the test, and two computational exercises are used to measure each ability, the exercises being arranged in cycle form. Each exercise has a value of one point, the highest possible score being fifty points. The specific abilities measured by the test are those listed in Table 1.

The Ohio Every-Pupil Test in Elementary Algebra, constructed by three Miami University students<sup>2</sup> under the personal supervision of Professor H. C. Christofferson, was used

at the termination of the experimental project for measuring the efficiency level in elementary algebra. This test was originally prepared for use in April, 1943, as one of a series of Ohio scholarship tests sponsored by the State Department of Education. It covers two main phases of algebraic learning: (1) algebraic computation and (2) algebraic problems and relationships. An attempt was made at the outset of the project to obtain a measure of algebraic ability for the reason that the pupils were only beginners in the subject.

## PROCEDURE

Dividing the 109 pupils into two groups of approximately equivalent computational ability constituted the first step in the experimental project. The division was made partly on the basis of administrative convenience but chiefly on the basis of computational efficiency, as determined by the pupils' scores on the analytical survey test. One of the groups thus formed included fifty-two pupils, who were enrolled in two algebra classes comprising twenty-four and twenty-eight pupils, respectively. These pupils spent part of their mathematics time on remedial work in computational arithmetic and the remaining part on algebra; they will be referred to as the "experimental group." The other group included fifty-seven pupils, who were likewise enrolled in two algebra classes comprising twenty-four and thirty-three pupils, respectively. These pupils, who spent all

<sup>1</sup> Published by the Harrison Publishing Co., Columbus, Ohio (1939).

<sup>2</sup> Ralph Snyder, Howard Hoffman, and Earl Thesken, Ohio Every-Pupil Test in Elementary Algebra. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State Department of Education, 1943.

their mathematics time on algebra alone, will be referred to as the "control group."

The second step in the project consisted in the organization and the administration of a program of remediation for the experimental pupils. The program extended over a period of eighteen weeks. During that time

TABLE 2  
MEAN SCORES OF 52 EXPERIMENTAL  
PUPILS AND 57 CONTROL PUPILS\*

	Experi- mental Pupils	Con- trol Pupils
Arithmetical computation:		
Mean score at beginning of semester.....	26.6	26.5
Mean score at end of semester.....	39.6	27.4
Mean point gain.....	13.0	0.9
Percentage of gain†.....	55.6	4.6
Algebraic computation: mean score at end of semester.....	11.5	11.6
Algebraic problems and relationships: mean score at end of semester.....	9.6	9.1
Algebraic computation and algebraic problems and relationships combined: mean score at end of semester.....	21.1	20.8

\* All computations were based on original test scores.

† The percentage of gain was found by dividing the actual point gain by the possible point gain.

the experimental pupils received, for two class periods a week, systematic instruction and practice in computational arithmetic based on individual diagnosis and analysis of their difficulties. Individualization of the instructional and practice work was facilitated through the use of a book entitled *Foundation Skills in Mathematics*,<sup>1</sup> in which the material is so

<sup>1</sup> H. C. Christofferson, Carmille Rush, and W. S. Guiler, *Foundation Skills in Mathematics*. Columbus, Ohio: Harrison Publishing Co., 1939.

arranged that each pupil obtains self-teaching and extensive practice on the abilities in which he is weak. The class period was fifty minutes in length. However, only thirty-five minutes of the period were spent on remedial arithmetic, the remaining fifteen minutes having been spent on making assignments in algebra. The other three fifty-minute mathematics periods each week were spent on the regular work in algebra. Thus the total class time given to the remedial work in arithmetic amounted to twenty-one hours. The control pupils spent all five of the fifty-minute mathematics periods each week for eighteen weeks on the regular course work in algebra.

The final step in the project consisted in measuring the amount of improvement which the experimental and the control pupils had made in computational arithmetic and in measuring the efficiency level which these pupils had attained in algebra.

#### RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

The results of the study are recorded in Table 2. In interpreting the tabular data, the reader should keep in mind the fact that the total amount of class time spent on algebra during the semester in which the experimental study was conducted was seventy-five hours for the control pupils and only fifty-four hours for the experimental pupils and that the latter pupils spent the remaining twenty-one hours on remedial work in computational arithmetic.

Analysis of the data shows that the

experimental pupils, who had divided their mathematics time between arithmetic and algebra, held their own in algebra with the control pupils, who had spent all of their mathematics time on algebra alone. In algebraic computation, the mean score at the end of the semester was 11.5 for the experimental pupils and 11.6 for the control pupils. In algebraic problems and relationships, the mean score at the end of the semester was 9.6 for the experimental pupils and 9.1 for the control pupils. In both algebraic computation and algebraic problems and relationships, the mean score at the end of the semester was 21.1 for the experimental pupils and 20.8 for the control pupils. Inspection of Table 2 shows further that the experimental

pupils far outdistanced the control pupils in arithmetical achievement. The mean point gain in arithmetical computation from the beginning to the end of the semester was 13.0 for the experimental pupils and only 0.9 for the control pupils. The corresponding percentages of gain were 55.6 for the experimental pupils and only 4.6 for the control pupils.

In the light of the widespread lack of competency in computational arithmetic revealed in Table 1 and in the light of the experimental evidence presented in Table 2, it would seem that school administrators might well consider the advisability of allocating to remedial arithmetic a part of the time in ninth-grade mathematics which schools are now assigning to algebra.

## MAN'S NATURE AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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**I**F GEOLOGISTS and astronomers have dispelled for scientific minds the idea that the cosmos is anthropocentric, biologists and physiologists have left scant room for reasonable doubt that man in his essential nature is an animal or that, if not truly or solely a beast, he is, at the least, a cousin of the beasts, possessing unique characteristics among animals, but a cousin not too far removed.

The most obvious inferences to be drawn from the postulated kinship of man with the remainder of the animal kingdom seem to be biological, anatomical, or physiological in their nature and hence to be the concern rather of the natural than of the social sciences. Incidentally, it is in the natural sciences rather than in the field of the social studies that the method and the matter of treatment will most probably encounter the hostility of fundamentalist theologians and their political servants. There are, however, inferences to be drawn for the social studies.

### PHYSICAL NEEDS

If man partake of the nature of an animal, he must be born; he must eat; he must grow and change with the passing years; he must have shelter; he must encounter and survive risks,

dangers, diseases; he must reproduce his kind; he must protect and care for his young; he must eventually die. Each of these needs involves not only biological science but economic considerations as well. Standards of living affect, to an important degree, the animal life of man from birth—yes, before birth—to death. To some of these needs sociological science has contributions to make. Realistic instructors in the social studies must have such considerations constantly in mind. These facts call for training in the healthful relations of the sexes; in physiology and hygiene; in various types of recreation; in the establishment of such personal adjustments as will lead to a useful, courageous, and happy life; in the language arts and reading; in arithmetical processes; in the values and the wise uses of money; and in household economics. Obviously many, if not all, of the objectives of such training imply that more than the happiness or well-being of the individual is involved; but certainly they imply, first of all, that the social studies must here contribute—if any contribution they can make—to the animal wants of man as an individual scion of the highest known form of life.

## MENTAL NEEDS

Man is an animal, but he is a unique animal. So far as science can now bear witness, the wide gulf separating him from the nearest of his fellow-members of the great animal world results chiefly from the size of his brain and the complexity of his nervous system, from his opposable thumb and the consequent capacity to manipulate tools, from his upright posture and the consequent freedom to use his upper limbs for purposes other than locomotion, and from his unique capacity to modify his environment. It is precisely because such vast differences in biological equipment have produced in the human species the development of what, speaking generally and perhaps unscientifically, we call "mind" or "intellectual processes" that the social studies have here an important function to serve. They must minister to the needs and the development of that unique phenomenon in the known cosmos—the human mind.

Mentality implies memory, understanding, rationality. It implies mental processes which demand that upon which to feed, upon which to operate. One cannot remember without the thing remembered; one cannot reason without materials upon which the mental processes popularly called "reason" may operate. One cannot think without having the matter of thought. One cannot exercise mind upon vacuity. Experience, actual and vicarious, must supply the materials upon which and with which ration-

ality is concerned. Genius would go unrecognized without knowledge. The difference between Aristotle and Einstein may not be so much a difference in innate mental capacity as a difference produced by twenty-three centuries of experience, of recorded and verified knowledge. The differences between John Stuart Mill and the untaught London cockney are, no doubt, largely explicable on grounds of native intelligence. But who knows to what extent the differences between the two might have been diminished had educational opportunities been less disparate?

Along with other disciplines, the social studies may contribute greatly to the enrichment of the human mind. Written history, if it be anything, is a record of the past experience of the race, together with an interpretation of that record. Economics, politics, sociology, geography, education, psychology (social and individual)—all supply materials from which knowledge is drawn. Literature, mathematics, art, music, philosophy—these likewise minister indispensably to the equipment of the human animal to live happily and rationally. These disciplines contribute to the development of individual intelligence and to healthful adjustments to the human and the nonhuman environment. A mind destitute of knowledge drawn from these fields would be poorly equipped to survive in the modern world or in any preceding world where other minds were in possession of such knowledge. Without knowledge there

cannot be understanding. If understandings be the goal of the social studies, knowledge must be a prerequisite to the attainment of this goal. If the life of the human individual is to be full and rich, these disciplines, broadly conceived, must make a heavy contribution.

#### SOCIAL NEEDS

Man, however, is not merely an animal, or even a special type of animal life. He is a social being. Human life involves infinitely complex interrelationships, and these interrelationships form the very subject matter of the social studies. On the assumptions that understanding leads to the possibility of a better social order and that knowledge of these complex human interrelationships contributes to understanding, the role of the social studies is obvious. What is now demonstrably false, one must admit, may often in history have been more important than has been scientifically established truth, as a distinguished president of the American Historical Association once declared in his presidential address.<sup>1</sup> In fact, the educational world has for some time been demanding, with increasing insistence, more realistic and more truthful instruction in the social studies in order that the social fabric may survive.

The argument for the inclusion of the social studies in the curriculum of the public school is, of course, more

often than not based on the assumption that these studies will minister to man, not as an individual, but as a member of society. The insistence that these studies be functional is, in effect, largely a demand that they be made to serve the interests of the community, the nation, the world. The contention that the true goals of instruction in the social studies are understandings rather than knowledge, attitudes rather than information, generalizations rather than memorized facts—this contention assumes that the social studies must make the functioning of society more intelligent and hence more generally satisfactory. The argument is utilitarian. The primary practical goal is not the well-being of the individual (except as the welfare of the individual is promoted by the creation of a better environment, human and material, and a more intelligently managed, more humane social organization); the objective is the improvement of man, not as an individual, but as a member of a better social order.

Those who would plan a course of study for children and adolescents need the services of child psychologists and of experts in educational methodology. They need the counsel and advice of these specialists because children are young animals, growing organisms, developing members of the world of animate things. A curriculum built in ignorance of this elementary fact would be a mere exercise in the listing of arbitrarily selected topics or subjects, bearing only accidental

<sup>1</sup> William A. Dunning, "Truth in History," *American Historical Review*, XIX (January, 1914), 220-27.



relation, if any relation at all, to the needs of those for whom it was designed. How should the pupil be introduced to the large, ill-defined areas of human knowledge vaguely described as the social studies? At what age level should he be initiated into the study of the materials included in the fields of economics, political science, sociology? In what form should these materials be presented? What methods of instruction have been shown to be most effective in their presentation? What, if any, sequence should be prescribed to realize optimum results? The answers to these questions lie in the realms of psychology and of educational method. They depend on inferences to be drawn from the nature of man as a developing organism, as an animal, as a special type of animal life.

Psychological considerations, informed men will hardly deny, are important in the organization of courses of study, particularly those for the primary-grade, the elementary-school, and the secondary-school levels. These considerations properly determine methodology; to a large extent they affect the selection of the materials of instruction. If they did not, it would not be possible to assume the validity of the principle of maturation—which, in general, is present in all animate life, at least among the higher animals—as a fact in the intellectual life of man, the special type of animal.

The selection of materials, however, is a task not alone for the psychologists and the educational method-

ologists. Modern educators are primarily interested in the growth of children, and they believe that materials of instruction should be selected for the purpose of promoting this growth rather than for the purpose of presenting for study a logically complete and well-organized field of knowledge as conceived by the specialist in the graduate school. It is possible, however, to admit the validity of such a conception of the functions of teaching and still argue that some areas of a field of knowledge are more worth knowing than others. The educator wishes to teach children; he wishes to use what is called "subject matter" as a tool in promoting the children's growth and development.

What subject matter shall he use? Unless he be competent in the areas of scholarship from which he intends to draw his materials, he must rely upon the specialists in those areas to select the most significant items comprehended therein. In the teaching of history, for example, he is faced by a field embracing, in the language of James Harvey Robinson, "all we know about everything man has ever done, or thought, or hoped, or felt."<sup>1</sup> Who, if not the trained historian, is to determine the most significant items from this vast welter of possibilities, on the certain assumption that in a full lifetime no student, however capable, could master more than a small area, a selection chosen from the well-nigh

<sup>1</sup> Quoted in Harry Elmer Barnes, *A History of Historical Writing*, p. 3. Norman, Oklahoma: University of Oklahoma Press, 1937.

infinite field? Obviously, in the disciplines of economics, politics, sociology, geography, similar considerations must obtain. Selection is the *sine qua non*. Who is to select if not he who has labored in the field?

Moreover, the nature of man as a social being, as a member of the social order, would seem to imply that he should have a concrete basis for rational attitudes toward his fellows, that he should understand the social and the political arrangements necessary for the existence of community life, that he should comprehend at least enough economics to adjust his life to the requirements of the group. The achievement of such a basis and such understandings is the task of an educational statesmanship in which are harmoniously fused the experience of the technically trained educator, of the psychologist, and of the student of many of the areas of human knowledge, including history, political science, sociology, economics, and geography.

Candor would suggest that much remains to be done toward the education of the American people in their civic, national, and international responsibilities (if they admit that they have any). One may ask whether the current confusion in the American mind about the war, still more the confusion worse confounded that existed before Pearl Harbor, may not be chargeable, in large measure, to the ignorance of great numbers of alumni of the American public school. Prejudices (resulting not wholly but largely

from ignorance), provincialism, complete failure on the part of many to see the issues involved, unwillingness to listen to reason, indifference, blind partisanship—all these characterize the product of American teaching. They play their part in determining the future of this country and of the world. Behind these products of the well-intentioned educational programs which have been carried out in the public schools for more than two generations, there are at work the sinister and obscurantist forces which find their opportunity in the educational failures of the nation. Ignorance is the brick and unreason is the mortar with which is built the sorry structure of prejudice.

On June 21, 1942, the *New York Times* published a survey by Benjamin Fine, reporting that more than four out of five colleges in the country require no American history for graduation. Less than three in ten require entering Freshmen to have had courses in American history in the secondary schools. Most high-school students do not go to college; but it would seem, from this study, that those who do continue their educations have an excellent chance of emerging with the baccalaureate degree after having completed their organized education in the history of their country at the level of the secondary or the elementary school. If this report represents the facts, the argument would seem all the more pressing for thorough, well-planned courses in American history in the secondary schools or the

upper elementary-school grades, or in both.

The requirement that an increased amount of time in the upper grades or in high school be devoted to American, English, and European history, to say nothing of the history of the Far East, seems to be a necessity if we are to hope for a public opinion in America capable of understanding the problems of world peace. The purpose would not be primarily the growth of the individual, however much to be desired such growth may be; the purpose would be to stimulate the development of an intelligent comprehension of national and international problems to the end that an instructed American public opinion may guide the government and support it in intelligent policies. To a similar end, somewhere in his public-school experience the young American should acquire some knowledge of our neighbors to the south. What such courses in history should contain is a problem for the historian. Where they should be taught in the schools is a problem for the educator.

Similar arguments might be constructed for courses in the other social studies. Geography, economics, political science, sociology—all these fields have information vitally necessary for the creation, through an informed public opinion, of a more rational social order. Not the development of the individual only, but the welfare of society would seem, in a socially minded community, to be the ultimate objective of instruction in these fields.

These areas, no less than history, offer materials the realistic teaching of which may encounter the attack of the obscurantist. What are needed to blunt his attack are appreciation of the power of facts, ability to secure facts and capacity to analyze and draw conclusions from them, and attitudes that are based on a frank willingness to face facts.

#### PROBLEMS OF CURRICULUM-MAKERS

In his Elihu Root lectures James R. Angell declared almost a decade ago that only through "profound changes in educational method and objectives" can science to any appreciable degree "affect the intellectual quality of civilization."<sup>1</sup> He thus, with proper limitations, rephrased the creed of the educator—a creed that the educational profession and those who determine its policies have reiterated with increasing frequency in every national and international emergency within the life-span of the present generation. Do Americans fail to vote? Education in citizenship is the remedy. Is the United States of America styled, with some reason, "the most lawless country on earth"? What is needed is education. Does the excessive consumption of liquor waste our resources, human and material? Warn young Americans through courses in the public schools, by law established, about the deleterious effects of alcohol on each of the major organs of the human

<sup>1</sup> James R. Angell, "Popular and Unpopular Science," *Science and Social Change*, p. 15. Compiled by Jesse E. Thornton. Washington: Brookings Institution, 1939.

body. And so on through a long list of ills!

More modest than some, Angell appropriately admits that the knowledge of science disseminated through education is not, so far as we see at this point, sufficient to make life complete. He reminds his readers that "many of the highest and purest values in life lie within the area of feeling and emotions"; that "beauty is not the child of science, and neither its creation nor its enjoyment waits upon scientific methods."<sup>1</sup> To date, it can hardly be denied, no infallible method has been discovered for creating the will to live "the good life," as that life may be measured in terms either of personal piety or of altruism and social consciousness. If the formulators of curriculums in the social studies are to act realistically, therefore, it would appear that they should work with the clear knowledge that no strong positive correlation has yet been reliably established between ethical conduct and information about society. To accept this point of view, of course, is not to argue that instruction in the social studies lacks value; it is merely to assert that such instruction alone does not make good citizens, either of the United States or of the world. It is to declare that agencies other than the public school, at least the public school as it now functions and is by law permitted to function, must cooperate if a substantially higher level of group conduct is to be attained. The lack of a demonstrable correlation be-

tween knowledge and conduct simply operates as one of the factors which should suggest a limited and attainable series of objectives in the preparation of organized public-school curriculums.

It should be said, further, that vested interests possessing enormous power still exist and that such interests find strong reasons for perpetuating the present status of instruction in the social studies in public high schools and colleges. These interests are financial and materialistic not only; they range from groups which fear the more realistic study of politics and economics to groups which object to any attack, real or imagined, on the preserves of dogmatic religion. These influences cannot be ignored in democratic communities, where the curriculums of the public schools are properly the concern of the taxpaying public.

With the knowledge, therefore, that scientists themselves express the utmost modesty in claiming for their fields any complete answer to the problems of the race, the builder of curriculums for the public schools must leave large latitude for the unknown. Science has not thus far prescribed ultimate answers to the riddle of human existence. Scientists themselves eschew dogmatism. Moreover, even were the findings of science unequivocal, did they contain the prescription agreed upon by competent scientists for the road to Utopia, they would still have to run the gantlet of local opinion before they found themselves a part of the curriculum of the

<sup>1</sup> James R. Angell, *op. cit.*, p. 16.

public schools. No democratic society can suppose any other condition.

He who would build a curriculum for the public schools in a democracy is limited by the conditions of his problem to proceed no faster than public opinion will permit. Public opinion will be played upon constantly by obscurantists, propagandists, and vested interests. To wait for the organization of an intelligent course of study until these voices are silent would be to postpone action to a point beyond any future as yet foreseen. The maker of the curriculum must, therefore, be guided by considerations of practicality and must test his course by the most enlightened opinion of his community. Courses of study democratically established are courses of study which active and influential public opinion will accept. Fortunately for the student of the social order, obscurantism in the fields of the social studies, though formidable, is perhaps based on less violent, less deep-seated prejudices than may be the case, for example, in the natural sciences.

The builder of the curriculum needs, too, a touch of humility. The public schools exercise little direct influence on children until five of the most important years in the development of their individual lives have passed. Without necessarily being in complete agreement with views similar to those expressed by Bertrand Russell some years ago that the building of human character, "if rightly conducted, . . . ought to be nearly

complete by the age of six,"<sup>1</sup> one must still admit that by the sixth year of life much has been done or left undone which the public schools not only but all later life can do little fundamentally to alter. Such contributions as the school generally and the social studies in particular can make to human development must be built on foundations which have already been deeply laid, for weal or for woe.

Moreover, the social studies (if we use the term in its limited sense) exert their influence over an extremely limited period. A few short hours a week during nine or ten months a year for less than a decade make up the entire amount of time in which teachers of the social studies can work such magic as lies within their capabilities. It might be well if general agreement, based on authoritatively interpreted scientific evidence, could be reached as to the maximum limits of the possible contributions of these and other fields to the building of character and the promotion of individual growth.

Were these limits understood, much time might be saved in school, and some theories as to the possibilities of educating the young of *Homo sapiens* might perhaps be revised. The spate of other influences which impinge upon the growing child, entirely beyond the control of the professional educators, operates in some cases rather to limit than to further the work of the schools. The motion picture, the newspaper, the theater, the

<sup>1</sup> Bertrand Russell, *Education and the Good Life*, p. 239. New York: Boni & Liveright, 1926.



church, the family, the playground—not all of these can always be termed *constructive* influences or influences which operate in harmony with the general purposes of the public schools.

In short, the public schools can exercise no total influence on the growth of those committed to their charge. The social studies cannot be responsible, and cannot claim responsibility, for more than a contribution to the total development of the human individual. Such reflections do not counsel total abandonment of efforts to make such contributions as are possible, but they suggest modesty in appraising the possibilities which may be hoped for. A well-known sentiment in educational circles since the war of 1917-18 has been that, since the educative influence of the church and of the American home has in modern times seriously declined, the school must accept a larger share of the responsibility for developing the young. There is no doubt that much may be said for this contention, but more may

have been said for it than acquaintance with the nature of man can justify.

Perhaps these other institutions, particularly the home, should be so rehabilitated that they can make their indispensable contributions. Omnipotence has been granted to no man and to no human institution, certainly not to the public school. If the social studies have any force in promoting individual growth, this force must be expended on individuals who are already conditioned, to no small extent, by other influences, perhaps even fatally and finally conditioned. Mayhap those architects of the school curriculum would be wiser were they to insist not that the school can do so much but rather that it can do little unless the other educative or formative influences in society rally to its aid. Were such an approach adopted, it is conceivable that more realistic school programs could be drawn up and a more effective public educational system created.



## A SOCIO-ECONOMIC CURRICULUM STUDY

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LIKE Belshazzar, the curriculums of the high schools of the nation have been weighed in the balances and found wanting—at least so say many able critics of our secondary schools. Perhaps there are reasons for this seeming inefficiency. In the history of education the growth of the public high school has been phenomenal. From 1890 to 1918 the number attending such schools increased 711 per cent.<sup>1</sup> In 1938 a total of 6,747,674 pupils were enrolled—an increase of 311,971 pupils over the biennium 1935-36 in spite of the fact that elementary-school enrolment was decreasing.<sup>2</sup> An institution growing by such unprecedented leaps and bounds can hardly be expected to reach anything like perfection in a curriculum. Some growing pains must be allowed for.

The public high school of today, like its predecessors, the Latin grammar school and the academy, must prepare

for college entrance, but it must at the same time meet the multiple and varied educational needs of those millions of boys and girls who do not go to college. There are some educators who believe that, even for those who go to college, general training is as good as specific training.<sup>3</sup> If this be true, then the problem is somewhat simplified. If this be false, then the problem becomes complicated indeed. Other educators, equally sincere, believe that the modern secondary school must present to its pupils, in addition to the traditional training, help with many personal problems, such as those of physical and mental health and of family life. Somewhere there must be a happy medium between those who would have too few courses and those who would have too many. Providing the proper curriculum is a tremendous challenge to the teachers of the nation.

### PROBLEM AND PROCEDURE

The superintendent and the teachers of Garrard County, Kentucky, have long felt that the curriculums of

<sup>1</sup> George Sylvester Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education*, p. 1. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 19. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1922.

<sup>2</sup> Emery M. Foster, *Statistical Summary of Education, 1937-38*, p. 7. *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1936-38*, chap. i. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1940.

<sup>3</sup> Lawrence Bolenbaugh and William Martin Proctor, "Relation of the Subjects Taken in High School to Success in College," *Journal of Educational Research*, XV (February, 1927), 87-92.

the small high schools in this agricultural county needed to be re-evaluated in the light of changing concepts of the aims of a modern secondary school. Neither our drawing power nor our holding power has been all that could be desired, and pupil elimination has become one of our gravest problems. In fact, the very existence of one of our county high schools is threatened because so few pupils finish their high-school work. For these reasons the writer in 1942 undertook a study in order to obtain the reactions of a group of former pupils to the program of studies which they had followed. These pupils were requested to answer many questions concerning their courses:

Why did you quit school?

Are the courses you studied in school functioning in your out-of-school life? If they are not, what would have been helpful?

What studies have proved most useful?

What studies have proved least useful?

What are you now doing?

What suggestions can you offer for improvement of school efficiency?

It was decided to study the Freshman classes of 1927 and 1928 since these groups could have finished high school and have had ten years of experience out of school—ample time for them to judge the value of their high-school education. Approximately 150 pupils from four senior high schools and two junior high schools were studied, including the school at Lancaster, the county seat. A questionnaire was given or sent to each person who had entered Grade IX in

the autumn of the years studied. Personal visits were made by the writer to most of the former pupils still living in the county. Although the study is limited in scope and although many former pupils could not be reached, it is believed that the results give a fairly accurate picture of the situation.

#### PERSONAL DATA

*Reasons for leaving school.*—Many interesting facts came to light through a tabulation of the personal data given by the ninety-seven former pupils who answered the questionnaire. Of this number, seventy-nine had graduated, and only six had dropped out at the end of the first year. The writer believes that most of those who did not graduate were also those who failed to answer the questionnaire. A larger percentage of girls than of boys dropped out before graduation.

Contrary to general belief, not one pupil gave dislike for school as a reason for quitting. Only four pupils said that they had had to stop school to work. Here is a surprising lack of evidence that pupils quit school because of economic pressure. The majority of girls who quit did so after marriage or because of their intention to marry. Only one pupil mentioned inconvenience in getting to school as a reason for quitting.

*Later education.*—Educators who advocate a vocational curriculum say that fewer than 10 per cent of the pupils who finish high school go to college. Of those who participated in this study, 43 per cent went to college and

12 per cent graduated from a four-year college. Again, as in high school, more boys than girls graduated from college, and two boys received the Master's degree. The chief reason for this high percentage of college attendance is that Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College is within easy driving distance of most of the county, with daily bus service available from three of the communities studied.

*Marital and family status.*—Of those answering, 83.5 per cent were married when the study was made. About 16.3 per cent of the boys and 16.5 per cent of the girls were single. Of the graduates who were married, approximately 45.6 per cent had no children, 26.5 per cent had one child, 18.7 per cent had three children, and 1.5 per cent had four. Of the nongraduates who were married, 29.4 per cent had no children, 29.4 per cent had one child, 17.7 per cent had two children, and 23.5 per cent had three. These percentages follow the national trend; that is, the higher the educational level, the fewer the children. Likewise, the low birth rate follows the national trend, with the result that the school enrolment is already decreasing in Garrard County.

*Occupational status.*—In Table 1 are shown the occupations in 1942 of the men and women who participated in this study.

Since these schools are rural schools, it was to be expected that more boys would have become farmers than would have entered any other occupation. However, the percentage was not

so high as was anticipated. Of the girls, 70.4 per cent were housewives. Some of the women who were housewives listed occupations outside the home, so that the number of housewives was actually higher than is shown by the table. It is significant

TABLE 1  
OCCUPATIONS IN 1942 OF NINETY-SEVEN  
FORMER PUPILS OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN  
GARRARD COUNTY, KENTUCKY

Occupation	Male	Female	Total
Housewife.....		38	38
Farmer.....	11		11
Teacher.....	2	4	6
Factory worker.....	3	2	5
General office worker.....	1	4	5
Government supervisor.....	4		4
Unemployed.....		4	4
Clerk in store.....	3		3
Merchant.....	3		3
Military service.....	3		3
Trucker.....	3		3
Restaurant manager.....	1	1	2
Telephone operator.....	1	1	2
Aircraft engineer instructor.....	1		1
Butcher.....	1		1
Electrical engineer.....	1		1
Mail carrier.....	1		1
Minister.....	1		1
Salesman.....	1		1
School attendance officer.....	1		1
School superintendent.....	1		1
Total.....	43	54	97

that no girls listed government employment of any kind. Of the whole group, 9.3 per cent were engaged in educational activities.

As can readily be seen, the wide range of activities and occupations makes it extremely difficult for a small high school to meet, in even a limited way, the vocational needs of all its pupils. Only eighteen of the boys and

fifteen<sup>1</sup> of the girls said that high-school training was necessary to obtain the jobs which they were holding. This small proportion seems to substantiate the familiar charge of recent years that school work does not function as it should in out-of-school activities.

Sixty-four of the total number expected their occupations to be permanent—apparently a reasonable percentage had made a satisfactory adjustment for life-work. Six of the thirteen boys who desired changes would like to enter government service in some capacity. Two in government service expressed a desire to go back into private industry. Not a single girl listed nursing, now a popular profession for girls out of high school, as her profession, although three said that they would like to enter training for nursing. For all but one of the girls, a change to a more desirable occupation would require additional training. As to the boys, each could change to a more desirable occupation without further training. Only one girl expressed a desire to enter the field of personal service—a field receiving much emphasis in present vocational education.

*Location of residence.*—Again following the general national trend, this county shows a movement of population from rural to urban areas. At the time of the study, forty-two of the former pupils still lived in the community where they had been reared, and fifty-five lived elsewhere.

<sup>1</sup> Some of the girls stated that they could not have married their husbands without a high-school education.

#### DATA REGARDING SCHOOL LIFE

The second part of the questionnaire had to do with subjects studied in school and with extra-curriculum activities. As in the tabulation of personal data, many interesting facts were here revealed.

Opinions of the pupils with regard to the subjects which had proved most helpful are shown in Table 2. English ranked highest as first choice, mathematics of some kind as second choice, the social sciences and general science as third choice. The poor showings of agriculture and of home economics were accounted for by the fact that vocational agriculture was not offered and home economics was offered in only one school.

Of the subjects listed as least helpful by the girls, geometry and higher mathematics were in the lead, with Latin running a close second. Naturally the boys had a better opinion of higher mathematics than had the girls. In the opinion of the boys, ancient history and foreign languages, especially Latin, tie for first place as having been least helpful. It is significant that not a single girl listed English as not helpful and that the few boys who did so specified literature. No pupil questioned the value of arithmetic, and only two listed geography in this classification. As was to be expected, those subjects which the former pupils thought should have been left out were the same as those which had proved least helpful to them.

When asked what subjects they had not studied which would have

been helpful, the girls listed home economics first. Home economics for girls usually balances vocational agriculture for boys in a rural high school, but only 20.9 per cent of the boys believed that agriculture would have been helpful. Ranking second with the girls and first with the boys was

mathematics, principally arithmetic, coming second. One person stated that English is the only subject which should be required of all pupils. The social sciences ranked third with both groups. Courses listed which are not ordinarily offered in the secondary-school curriculum were first aid, occu-

TABLE 2  
OPINIONS OF NINETY-SEVEN FORMER PUPILS CONCERNING SUBJECTS WHICH  
THEY HAD FOUND MOST HELPFUL SINCE LEAVING HIGH SCHOOL

SUBJECT	MOST HELPFUL		SECOND MOST HELPFUL		THIRD MOST HELPFUL	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Agriculture.....	4	1	1		2	2
Algebra.....	1	1	2	2		1
Arithmetic.....	3	2	2	12	2	
Botany.....					1	
English.....	14	42	15	7	7	3
General science.....	3		4	3	6	6
Geography.....			1		1	7
Home economics.....		3		2		4
Latin.....					1	1
Manual training.....	1				2	
Mathematics.....	15	3	6	12	4	2
Mechanics.....			1			
Music.....			1			
Physics.....					2	1
Physiology and hygiene.....			1	1	1	4
Social science.....		1	1	9	8	6
Spelling.....		1			1	2
Typewriting and bookkeeping.....			1			1

business training, including typewriting, bookkeeping, shorthand, and general business. Ranking second and third with the boys were manual training and mechanics, respectively. Strangely enough, only about 50 per cent listed those subjects which might be classified as vocational training.

Pupils' opinions concerning the subjects that should be required of all pupils closely paralleled the subjects found most helpful. As would be expected, English led all others, with

pations, psychology, engineering, Bible study, and military training. It is most unusual that only two respondents believed that pupils should be required to learn a trade.

Approximately 33.3 per cent of the boys and 40 per cent of the girls took part in no extra-curriculum activities during their school days. A larger percentage of graduates than of nongraduates failed to participate. The chief interest of the boys was some form of athletics, especially competitive



games. More girls belonged to the Girl Reserves than to any other club. Dramatics, particularly school plays, were very popular with both boys and girls. The number who reported taking no part in such activities was great, and in all probability the number of participants is larger among the present school population. It is significant that those who advocated fewer such activities were those with the most formal education. Dancing was the activity most highly recommended, but nearly always the recommendation was made with some reservations. Contrary to popular opinion, athletics fell below plays, and banquets ranked very high.

An overwhelming majority liked school, in retrospect at least. Only six disliked it, and their reasons were that it is too confining, that there are too many restraints, and that pupils do not like to study. Very few suggestions were given for improvement of the schools. It was agreed, however, that the curriculum should be planned with more consideration for those who are not going to college and that each child in every grade should take part in a physical-education program. Not in a spirit of criticism but in a spirit of helpfulness, one respondent suggested that the teacher try to promote a feeling of good will between himself and the individual pupil. He relied on the well-known theory that praise produces better results than censure.

#### SUMMARY

In summarizing, it will be well to compare these findings with those revealed in other areas. In a study made in Texas<sup>1</sup> more than two-thirds of the secondary-school principals responding reported that from 10 to 39 per cent of the high-school pupils drop out. Our percentage was 19. In this same study of Texas schools 33.3 per cent of the graduates went on to college, while 53 per cent of ours entered college. The average for the United States in 1937 was 29.2 per cent.<sup>2</sup>

Our girls gave marriage as their chief reason for quitting school. In accordance with the national trend, our boys said that they were needed to work. A study in Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, showed that 20 per cent of the pupils dropping out stopped school to work,<sup>3</sup> a much higher percentage than ours. Many schools have reported widespread unemployment among their graduates. Not one of our boys reported himself as unemployed.

Judged by the number ranking each, English has proved to be the most helpful subject studied; mathematics, second; the social sciences, third; and

<sup>1</sup> Thelma A. Bollman, "Relation of College-Entrance Requirements and the Secondary-School Curriculum," *School Review*, L (April, 1942), 286-93.

<sup>2</sup> David T. Blose and Carl A. Jessen, *Statistics of Public High Schools, 1937-38*, p. 15. *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1936-38*, chap. v. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1940.

<sup>3</sup> C. M. Arthur, "The Vocational Summary," *School Life*, XXVI (May, 1941), 251.



general science, fourth. These findings are in line with the results made public in a similar study in El Paso, Texas.<sup>1</sup> El Paso graduates of the past fifty years ranked English first, mathematics second, typewriting third, and Spanish fourth. It is not surprising that the subjects found most helpful by the pupils are the same subjects which they believed should be required of all pupils. Again judged by the number ranking each, higher mathematics has been least helpful; Latin, second; ancient history, third; and modern foreign languages, fourth. Naturally these are the subjects which the pupils thought should be left out of the curriculum. The greatest demand for new subjects was for business training, home economics, mechanics, agriculture, and subjects having to do with health education. The only new extra-curriculum activi-

ty suggested was dancing, a pastime frowned on, if not actually forbidden, in most small rural communities.

In our own county we must face these facts: (1) Most of the pupils who drop out of school could stay in school if they found it profitable or interesting. (2) While every subject offered has been of some help to somebody, too many courses have benefited a few at the expense of the many. (3) Time gained from the elimination of unprofitable subjects might be used in training for actual living by participation in co-operative activities. (4) The curriculum must somehow be made flexible enough to meet the individual needs of those who wish to go on to college, of those who want to find a job when they graduate from high school, and at least some of the needs of those who drop out before they graduate.

To provide a changing, dynamic curriculum to meet the needs of children of diverse backgrounds and prospects is a most challenging task. It can be done; it must be done.

<sup>1</sup> *El Paso High School in the Lives of Its Graduates*. El Paso, Texas: El Paso Public Schools, 1941. (Reported in *School Review*, L [February, 1942], 84-85.)

## NEWS INTERPRETATION IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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**I**F QUESTIONED, we should all agree that being well informed on current affairs ought to be the aim of every American citizen. We might even go further and say that now, during these serious times, it should be one of the citizen's duties to obtain daily all the information he can about the progress of the war and about the United Nations.

Very soon many of our junior high school boys and girls will be assuming adult duties in the armed forces, in industry, or in the government. In the next several months the schools can give these pupils valuable training and interest in obtaining the news and can also help create in them attitudes worthy of respect.

The newspaper is one form of printed matter found in most American homes. It is the main source of reading material from which Americans find out what is happening at home and abroad. Likewise, a radio is found in a large proportion of the homes. By means of these two agencies, national and international events should be followed, and a fair understanding of the issues obtained, by the citizens of our land.

How can we, in the few months ahead, give to the pupils who are in

junior high school techniques and suggestions that will aid them to gain the most from their reading of the newspapers and their listening to the radio? If pupils can be given definite training in the interpretation of news as it is portrayed in various forms in newspapers and can have guidance in listening to news over the radio, they will develop habits which will prove advantageous in daily living.

In the writer's classes a study of the following methods of disseminating news has been effective: the news article; the photograph of a person; the radio; the picture of an event; the map, graph, diagram, and chart; and the cartoon. Any of these may be chosen for first consideration by the class.

### THE NEWS ARTICLE

The writer chose to take up the news article first, because the class had subscribed to a school news magazine to help them with their current-events study. Some pupils are weak in reading ability and need this additional simple reading material especially prepared for pupils. For this reason the children's news magazine is a good starting point. If interest is aroused in one of these magazines and the pupils read it through the weeks,

they will learn the high lights of events occurring in the world. The newspaper-reading for which we hope to give definite training treats more fully the topics only briefly dealt with once a week in the small magazines.

In the study assignment on the news article, the pupils were asked to be able to tell the title of the article on which they reported and its main points. Discussion brought out the types of articles that would be suitable and important enough to bring to the attention of the class. This description emphasized the big issues, national and international in nature. Next, pupils were shown how to pick out salient points and were directed with their study of the article. Oral recitations in front of the class followed, the teacher commending recitations well done or offering suggestions to the individual who could have given a better talk. This type of work went on for several days until the class seemed to understand how to report on a news article.

#### PHOTOGRAPH OF A PERSON

Next, the photograph or the picture of a famous person in the news was the topic in the current-events period. Pupils were instructed to find a picture of some person who was outstanding in the news and to prepare a brief talk to be given in class, emphasizing those points that proved the importance of the person. It was interesting to see how much news came from this simple assignment and what a variety of good pictures was brought to the class.

Several large colored pictures secured from the popular picture-type magazines added materially to the interest in this phase of the study. The pictures were nicely mounted on cardboard so that they could be held up before the class during the recitation. Later these pictures were displayed on the black-board ledge and the bulletin board in order that all members of the class could gain familiarity with the names and pictures of important people mentioned repeatedly in the news.

After a short period of time the class was ready to pass on to another means of learning the news.

#### THE RADIO

The radio came next. This part of the study was prefaced by a class discussion, which brought out facts concerning the various radio stations and the times at which each station puts on its news broadcasts. Names of the best-known commentators and their times of broadcasting were reviewed in an effort to indicate the programs which were given at times of the day when pupils could listen. So many broadcasts were cited that every pupil could be expected to choose one or more convenient periods in which to listen. The plan of study suggested for preparing this assignment was similar to that for the news article, the difference being that it was heard instead of read by the pupil. Because of this similarity, only two or three lessons were needed to acquaint the class with the value of this kind of news reporting.

## THE PICTURE OF AN EVENT

For the next assignment the class was directed back to the newspaper to prepare a report on a picture inserted in the news. The picture was mounted and exhibited before the class during the recitation, and it served to direct interest to the article needed to explain it. The pupil first read the caption or brief account printed at the bottom of the picture and then gave a short account of the incident depicted.

## THE MAP, GRAPH, DIAGRAM

Special treatment was given to the map found in the newspaper or magazine. The class discussion developed the fact that, if carefully studied, a map conveys vital information and serves to clarify the news story. When reporting on the map, pupils were asked to take their chosen maps to the front of the room and to locate the particular areas on the large wall map in order that the whole class might obtain a clear conception of these places in their world setting. If pupils were slow in finding places or appeared puzzled about where to look on the large map, the teacher urged them to use their small newspaper maps as patterns and to transfer those ideas over to the large map. Help was occasionally needed, but in most cases the pupils were able to find the locations without much assistance. Since maps are not found in all papers, this assignment was usually given for preparation either over a week end or over a period of at least several days.

Thus each pupil in the class had ample time to find a good map.

In turn, interpreting the graph, the diagram, and the chart furnished new topics to discuss. Each day small outlines, such as the following, were given to direct the pupils in their work.

1. What is the title?
2. What does your selection show?
3. How does it help you understand the news?

## THE CARTOON

The class work with the cartoon proved especially interesting. The pupils' choices were mounted and brought to class. First there was a brief discussion on cartooning, bringing out why cartoons are published and how cartoonists get their ideas. Incidents in the daily lives of cartoonists showed how a member of this profession needs to be ever alert to what is important and timely if he is to be clever with his picture portrayals of significant ideas. (This discussion worked in nicely with the study of vocational civics which has for its aim the study of all kinds of vocations.) The following outline was used in the preparation of the report on the cartoon.

1. What is the caption?
2. What does the picture show?
3. What does the cartoon mean?

In due time the members of the class were requested to try their hands at some original cartooning. The teacher mentioned that many of them drew well and that they might be surprised to find what really good cartoons they could make. Some very

original and worth-while results were produced by a large number of the group, and they enjoyed the task.

#### OTHER ACTIVITIES

Other activities gave further practice in pupil development along these suggested lines. (1) The bulletin board carried weekly displays of materials reported on in class. A committee of pupils changed the materials every week and kept the board up to date.

(2) Booklets were made containing all kinds of material on a chosen field of interest. (3) Original cartoons were displayed on a bulletin board to encourage others to make cartoons. (4) Individual notebooks were kept by some pupils. These showed the children's daily progress in their class work.

As the semester progressed, a spe-

cial method of learning the news was suggested by the teacher each day until it was felt that all methods had been satisfactorily mastered. From then on, pupils were permitted to make their own choices, each time picking out something that especially appealed to them. Those who had been absent the day before were always allowed this choice in order that they would feel responsible for contributing something at class time.

This kind of persistent and regular treatment of the news attains good results. It should make pupils much more intelligent students of current affairs because of the daily training given by the teacher. It should build in them a desire and a willingness to read and listen consistently to the news.

## SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

GORDON N. MACKENZIE

University of Wisconsin

ORVIN T. RICHARDSON

Chicago, Illinois

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**D**ISCUSSION of secondary-school organization continues to stress the emerging problems of the junior college and the growing recognition of the importance of this unit in the American system of education. Under the stimulus of military enterprise, youth problems are naturally emphasized in the writings pertaining to both high-school and junior-college programs and in the discussion of the specialized field of vocational training. There is also widespread interest in the opportunities for secondary schools to extend their services to local communities by organizing adult-education programs or by increasing their offerings to meet the developing demand for occupational and cultural upgrading of large segments of the adult population.

### JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

463. DRAKE, LELAND N. "Administrative Techniques Used for Pupil Adjustment in a Junior High School," *American School Board Journal*, CVI (May, 1943), 21-22.

Discusses methods of caring for maladjusted pupils at the junior high school level.

464. OTTOSEN, A. HENRY, and ROTHNEY, JOHN W. M. "A Practical Reorganization of a Junior High School To Meet Student Needs," *Education*, LXIII (September, 1942), 29-39.

Describes an attempt to focus the attention of the teacher on the child through grouping and guidance in Grades VII-IX.

465. SMITH, MAURICE M., STANDLEY, L. L., and HUGHES, CECIL L. *Junior High School Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1942. Pp. xiv+470.

Discusses the history and the purposes of the junior high school and presents suggestions for the organization and the administration of this unit of the school system.

### JUNIOR COLLEGE

466. BLAKE, WAINWRIGHT D. "The NYA, the CCC and the Junior College," *School and Society*, LVI (July 11, 1942), 46-47.

A discussion of the question whether agencies for youth attain fullest flower under governmental control or in organized educational institutions.

467. BOYLAN, FRANCIS T. "The Part-Time Job in the Junior College Plan," *Junior College Journal*, XIII (October, 1942), 80-83.

States some advantages and disadvantages of the part-time work program.



468. CILLIÉ, FRANK. "Objectives of a Private Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, XIII (December, 1942), 198-200.

Indicates reasons for students' selection of a private junior college.

469. EELLS, WALTER CROSBY. "The Junior College in the United States," *Junior College Journal*, XIII (April, 1943), 390-92.

Presents a series of questions and answers tracing the development of the junior college.

470. HARBESON, JOHN W. "Acceleration on the Junior College Level," *American School Board Journal*, CVI (April, 1943), 44-46.

Discusses acceleration through a shortened course period and also through admission of students to junior college before completion of the four-year high-school course.

471. HILL, MERTON E. "The Present and Future of the Junior College," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVIII (February, 1943), 116-20.

Indicates the need for junior colleges to continue to offer strong academic courses, to introduce intensive short courses for men going into the armed forces, to provide terminal courses, and to give capable students some college training before they enter the armed services.

472. OBRIEN, F. P. "Recognizing Vocational Implications," *Junior College Journal*, XIII (March, 1943), 323-24.

Suggests that there should be an interrelation between vocational and academic courses in junior college.

473. REEVES, ROBERT L. "Advantages of a Separate Unit for Administering the Junior College," *School and Society*, LVII (January 30, 1943), 136.

Points to five advantages of the junior college as a separate unit of administration.

474. SMITH, LEO F. "Initiating, Administering, and Co-ordinating Co-operative Work Programs in Junior Colleges," *School Review*, LI (April, 1943), 213-18.

Contains a report of the extent of work-study programs in junior colleges in the United States.

475. WARD, ALINE. "Junior College Education for Emergency," *Junior College Journal*, XIII (December, 1942), 187-91.

Stresses the peculiar ability of the two-year program to meet needs of students for careers, for citizenship, and for future development. Suggests merging the liberal-arts program with useful, practical curriculums.

#### ARTICULATION

476. FORD, R. EUGENE. "Co-ordinating Junior High and High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVII (November, 1942), 424-25.

Cites the work done at Shafter (California) High School in bringing about better articulation between the elementary and the secondary schools.

477. *Sound Educational Credit for Military Experience*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1943. Pp. iv+36.

Seeks to plan a sound basis on which credit for the educational values of military experience may be granted. Involves secondary as well as higher education.

#### VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

478. HILLWAY, TYRUS. "Enriching the Vocational Program," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXVIII (December, 1942), 663-71.

Contends that vocational schools and colleges do not give students an understanding of the relation between the individual and the culture pattern—that training is one-sided in the direction of economic advancement and concentration on technical training.

479. MEADE, MARY E. "A Vocational Course in an Academic High School," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXIV (September, 1942), 48-52.

Describes the organization of an academic-vocational high school and discusses the problems involved in operating the two programs together.

480. *Vocational Education*. Forty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Distributed by the Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1943. Pp. xvi+494+vi.

A general discussion of plans of organization and administration of vocational education in secondary and higher institutions.

481. "Vocational Training for War Production Workers," *Education for Victory*, I (January 15, 1943), 17-18.

Describes opportunities for training administered by the United States Office of Education through local vocational schools.

#### YOUTH PROBLEM AND PROGRAM<sup>1</sup>

482. DAVIS, ROBERT A., and TAYLOR, HAZEL. "Efficiency of the High-School N.Y.A. Program in Colorado," *School Review*, LI (May, 1943), 283-91.

Reports the results of a study of the program of the National Youth Administration in the high schools of the state of Colorado.

483. FRENCH, WILL. "Youth Education and Postwar Democracy," *Teachers College Record*, XLIV (November, 1942), 116-29.

Presents criteria for the planning of post-war education and calls the attention of professional groups to the problems involved.

484. JACOB, PEYTON. "Post-war Education at Junior College Level," *Junior College Journal*, XIII (March, 1943), 325-28.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 186 (Myers) in the list of selected references appearing in the March, 1943, number of the *School Review*.

Discusses principles of post-war education and the revision of academic standards.

485. REEVES, FLOYD W. *Education for Today and Tomorrow*. The Inglis Lecture, 1942. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1942. Pp. 66.

Forecasts adjustments in secondary-school programs to meet the needs of youth.

486. REEVES, ROBERT L. "Problems Confronting the Average High-School Graduate," *School and Society*, LVII (February 20, 1943), 215-16.

Points to the increasing number of high-school graduates in proportion to the population and discusses the demand for enlarged educational opportunities.

#### ADULT EDUCATION

487. BRUNNER, EDMUND DE S., CARTWRIGHT, MORSE A., and HALLENBECK, WILBUR C. "The War Situation and Adult Education," *Teachers College Record*, XLIV (January, 1943), 267-74.

Discusses difficulties confronting adult education and notes some problems and their solutions.

488. CARPENTER, J. E. "Role of the Junior College in Adult Education," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVIII (February, 1943), 83-85.

Shows how the junior colleges are entering the field of adult education and discusses their opportunity and responsibility with regard to local adult-education needs.

489. CAVENAGH, F. A. "War and Adult Education," *Nation's Schools*, XXX (November, 1942), 25.

A brief description of adult-education programs in Great Britain in the years 1938-41.

490. COPE, CALVIN C. "Wartime Adult Schools in Small Communities," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVIII (February, 1943), 79-82.

Presents the problem of adult education in a small community, indicating the way in

which it differs from the problem in cities and industrial centers.

491. HEWITT, DOROTHY. "Adult Education Goes to War," *Adult Education Journal*, II (January, 1943), 48-52.

Describes the reorganization of the program at the Boston Center for Adult Education to meet wartime needs of enrollees.

492. JONES, LEO. "Social-Civic Education in War Time," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVIII (February, 1943), 97-99.

Notes contribution of adult education in bringing citizens to a realization of the values for which they are fighting.

493. KEMPFER, HOMER. "Opportunities for Adult Education during the Current School Year," *American School Board Journal*, CV (December, 1942), 15-16.

Discusses the place of the school in stimulating healthy public opinion.

494. MACKAYE, DAVID L. "An Experiment in Adult Education," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVIII (February, 1943), 100-102.

Discusses possible post-war programs of adult education and laments the wide breach between formal education and adult education.

495. MANN, GEORGE C. "The Changed Emphasis in Adult Education," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVIII (February, 1943), 72-75.

Explains how adult education is geared to the educational needs of both the problems of external conflict and the problems of daily living.

496. SMITH, BERTRAND L. "Co-ordinated Community Group Action Is Functional Adult Education," *Adult Education Bulletin*, VII (April, 1943), 113-16.

Emphasizes the potential adult-education values in co-ordinated activities of community organizations.

# Educational Writings

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## REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A COUNSELING GUIDEPOST FOR HIGH-SCHOOL PERSONNEL WORKERS.—Secondary-school counselors and teachers interested in becoming more effective in their contacts with young people often find it difficult to locate readable, pertinent treatises on guidance, not because of the lack of textbooks on this subject, but rather because of the number and varying objectives of the books which have been written in the field. A recent publication<sup>1</sup> by the director of the University of Minnesota Testing Bureau presents, in a clear and informal style, the principles of counseling and testing with which high-school personnel workers should be familiar.

This book, which is divided into three parts, is written primarily for teachers who are in daily contact with pupils and for administrators who are interested in understanding what may be expected from a counseling service.

The first part treats the functions which a guidance program is supposed to serve. The author likewise devotes considerable space to a discussion of the reasons underlying the under-achievement and over-achievement of students in academic studies. He lists the following eight categories as the areas in which the teacher or counselor should obtain information in order to understand high-school pupils: their academic ability, past achievements, aptitudes and disabilities, interests, personality adjustments, physical health, family background, and the jobs which students hope for in the world of work.

<sup>1</sup> John G. Darley, *Testing and Counseling in the High-School Guidance Program*. Guidance Plans and Methods, Nos. 10 and 11. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1943. Pp. 222. \$2.60.

The second part of this volume is devoted to a discussion of the basic statistics required in order to interpret test results. Starting with a few fundamental ideas, the author clearly presents the concepts of normal curves, averages, percentile ranks, frequency distributions, correlation coefficients, critical ratios, and reliability and validity. Great care has been exercised to make this section understandable, and a minimum number of mathematical symbols have been utilized. The author has achieved the difficult task of making statistics less frightening to those who are not mathematically inclined. In this section Darley also discusses briefly the basic principles involved in the use of intelligence, achievement, aptitude, interest, and personality tests and inventories. He also provides information on one or two tests in each area and lists the name of the author, time required for administration, reliability, validity, norms, publisher, and cost.

The third section discusses "the identification or diagnosis of student problems and the methods of treating them" (p. 133). The techniques of organizing a counseling program, identifying the major types of pupils' problems, and utilizing the counseling interview are presented in separate chapters. The last chapter is devoted to a description of the methods employed in initiating a guidance program in Cass County, North Dakota. This chapter is a stimulating illustration of the manner in which a relatively small community with limited resources, by marshaling local, state, and federal services, was able to afford a program of guidance for young people in the area.

Darley has made a positive contribution

to the literature on counseling at the secondary-school level. In a short, readable volume he has successfully presented the philosophy and functions of guidance and the use and interpretation of psychological tests. The chapter on statistics is exceptionally well done, and the short annotated bibliographies given at the ends of the chapters are most helpful. The use of a type style on the figures which does not seem to be in keeping with that employed in the rest of the book and the inconsistent references to the same test of scholastic ability on Figures 1, 3, 4, and 5 are minor weaknesses which should be mentioned. On the whole, however, this volume is very well done, and it is commended as being worthy of a prominent place on the bookshelves of high-school teachers and counselors.

LEO F. SMITH

*Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics  
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**HOW THE COLLEGE STUDENT SPENDS HIS MONEY.**—Increasing college enrolments during the past two decades have resulted in giving the expenditures of college students a place of no small importance in the general problem of consumer spending. A number of investigators have made comprehensive studies of family expenditures and of expenditures of single men and women not attending college, but few have been concerned with the problems of how much money the college student spends and what he spends it for. Consequently a recent publication<sup>1</sup> reporting an investigation of the spending of students at Indiana University during the school year 1940-41 is both timely and appropriate.

The volume is organized into ten chapters, two appendixes, a bibliography, and an index. The first chapter, introductory in

nature, is entitled "The Nature and Significance of the Study." Chapter ii presents the data concerning total expenditures by all students included in the study and expenditures according to various groupings into which the students were classified. Chapters iii through ix deal with expenditures classified according to the following fourteen budget items: housing; food; clothing; personal care and laundry; recreation and refreshments; university fees, organization dues, and textbooks; and transportation, health, contributions, and general reading. The final chapter presents a brief summary and the conclusions reached. One of the appendixes is concerned with the methods employed in the study, and the other contains twenty-one summary tables. Approximately seventy references make up the Bibliography. The Index is complete and detailed.

The study is based on data secured from 1,275 students. The students were classified into the following groups: all students; men, women; organized men, organized women, unorganized men, and unorganized women; Freshmen, Sophomores, Juniors, and Seniors; students in business, in education, in medicine, in law, and in arts and sciences; and students from farms, from small towns, and from large cities. The data were collected by having the students fill out schedules in which they gave estimates of their various expenditures for the school year. The schedules were filled out in February, 1941, the first month of the second semester included in the study. Some of the students were interviewed, and these expressed confidence in their estimates.

Presentation of the data concerning the students' spending is the primary concern of the author. Seventy-three tables are included in the text proper, in addition to the twenty-one tables in Appendix B. Some attempt is also made to interpret the numerical findings.

Careful editing would have improved the book and given the reader more confidence in the data reported. On page 124, Table 34

<sup>1</sup>Mary M. Crawford, *Student Folkways and Spending at Indiana University, 1940-1941: A Study in Consumption*. Studies in History, Economics and Public Law, No. 499. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943. Pp. 272. \$3.50.

lists certain spending data for men and for women, yet the text indicates that the data listed for men are in fact those for the women, and vice versa. On page 128 (third line) it is obvious that "men" should read "women." On page 100 the median expenditure for clothing for all students in the sample is given as \$74.78; in Table 67 it is given as \$77.78; and in Table 78 it is given as \$67.94, although the same sample of students is being considered in all instances. On page 209 two amounts are stated in the context to be the median expenditures for personal care and contributions, respectively, while the table on the same page lists these as first-quartile rather than median amounts. Other such examples could be cited.

In spite of such limitations, the book will be of value to administrators and guidance officers at both secondary-school and college levels, as well as to students of consumer spending. There is the question, of course, of the extent to which a study of spending at Indiana University offers a picture which is typical of other institutions. The author expresses the opinion that it "does offer a cross-section view which is typical of many other institutions" (p. 20). Although this opinion may be correct, it is the reviewer's belief that other studies will have to be made before the "many other institutions" can be identified.

RUSSELL T. GREGG  
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**EXTENDING LITERARY HORIZONS FOR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS.**—It is not often that a student has the opportunity to possess for study a literature book that accomplishes as many aims and purposes as does a recent series designed for junior high school readers.<sup>1</sup> Books I, II, and III of this

<sup>1</sup> *Literature: A Series of Anthologies.* Book I, by E. A. Cross and Elizabeth Lehr, pp. xii+628, \$2.20; Book II, by E. A. Cross, Dorothy Dakin, and Helen J. Hanlon, pp. xii+628, \$2.20; Book III, by E. A. Cross, Florence M. Meyer, and Emma L. Reppert, pp. x+694, \$2.32. New York: Macmillan Co., 1943.

set offer selections which not only are of outstanding literary value but also are of a nature which will appeal to the interest of the pupils. Here are books which a student will enjoy while he is reading them in school and will want to keep as part of his permanent library after he has finished them in class. The selections, in prose, poetry, and the drama, range in time of writing from the earliest English ballads to the present day. Many selections are of value because they will develop a strong feeling of loyalty to America, while other stories of foreign countries and peoples will foster a feeling of tolerance and understanding. Teachers will welcome these new books for their wide selection of reading material that may be adapted to any type of curriculum or course of study.

Upon examining the books more closely, one finds several unique and interesting features. The books are divided into sections, "Conquest of the Frontier," "Solving Mysteries," "Beauty and Wonder of Nature," etc., and at the beginning of each of these is a brief, well-written introduction setting the stage for the selections which follow. At the beginning of each story, play, or poem, a sentence or two appear to arouse further the pupil's interest. Usually a little is told about the author of the selection, but the sketch never becomes a recital of dull facts and meaningless dates. Rather it is an account of how the author happened to write this selection or of how the events and background of his life rendered him particularly capable of writing as he did. At the end of each section there is, of course, the usual suggested supplementary-reading list, which has been compiled with great care and gives promise to the pupil of suggesting books extremely interesting as well as instructive. There are questions, too, at the close of each chapter, similar to a juvenile "Information Please," which young people will find entertaining and challenging and which will serve as an excellent method of determining a pupil's comprehension and retention of the preceding material.



Excellent provision is made for both group and individual activity. Panels, oral reports, and stimulating class discussions will grow out of the various selections read and the thoughtfully prepared questions at the ends of the chapters.

These books will help a pupil increase his vocabulary. There is no tedious vocabulary drill, but words which are likely to cause difficulty for the average junior high school pupil are carefully defined at the bottom of the page, and words with interesting histories or derivations are frequently treated more fully at the close of the selection.

Each book contains at least one complete classic, Book I presenting *Treasure Island*; Book II, *Bambi* and *As You Like It*; and Book III, *The Lady of the Lake*, *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, and *The Flamingo Feather*.

The books are large and heavy, but this disadvantage is not easy to overcome in literature books. If the print is large enough for young readers and if the contents of the book are complete and full, it cannot be otherwise. The format of the books is attractive, and the pen-and-ink illustrations by Maud and Miska Petersham will appeal to junior high school pupils.

BABETTE LEMON

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**PREPARING COLLEGE STUDENTS TO READ TECHNICAL SUBJECTS.**—The impact of the war on colleges and universities has resulted in marked increases in enrollments in the sciences and other technical subjects. Many students are attracted to these subjects, not because of real interest and capacity for the subjects, but because of the immediate military or vocational opportunities offered by them. Frequently such students are poorly prepared by experience and training to interpret the reading materials of technical fields. Even under more normal conditions, numerous students who are genuinely interested in technical courses are handi-

capped in their studies by difficulties in reading. It is fortunate at this time that the authors of a new manual,<sup>1</sup> who have been experimenting with reading experiences requiring the use of skills necessary in the study of technical fields, have made their findings available to others.

The manual is designed for use in a class in study techniques that prepares for, or runs concurrently with, classes in technical fields. Its purposes are "to give insight into the kind of thinking involved in reading technical materials and to direct this thinking through well-constructed exercises" (p. xi). The introductory chapter defines reading as a thinking process and describes certain special skills required in reading technical materials. Apparently the purpose of the chapter is to arouse the interests of students in improving reading skills by impressing them with the importance of reading as a study tool. The chapters which follow deal with eight types of reading skills: reading for details, reading for main ideas, reading for organization of ideas, reading to understand principles, reading to follow directions, reading to solve a problem, reading to understand definitions, and reading to understand and interpret graphic materials.

Each chapter begins with a descriptive treatment of the reading skill to be practiced. The description defines the skill, indicates the purposes for which it is used, and illustrates the use of the skill by a concrete example. The remainder of the chapter is devoted to practice exercises for applying the skill. The applications consist of paragraphs of technical reading followed by a number of questions or exercises that guide the student in the form of reading or thinking to be practiced. The reading selections are chosen chiefly from the fields of physical science and engineering.

Because of the technical character of the

<sup>1</sup> Hazel Pope Howland, Lawrence L. Jarvie, and Leo F. Smith, *How To Read in Science and Technology*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943. Pp. xii+264.

reading selections, the interpretation of some of them requires scientific understandings. The exercises will be performed most readily by students who have had some training in science. The book is better suited, therefore, to relatively mature students than to beginners. In view of the current influx of immature students into science classes, an instructor might prefer to choose some of the more popularly written selections for immature students instead of following the order in the book.

The manual is self-teaching in that it contains all necessary directions for the student. The assistance of an instructor is required, however, in evaluating the reactions of the students because correct reactions may vary and no specific key is used.

The need for continual growth in reading ability is recognized by instructors of content subjects, but few of them are familiar with techniques of teaching reading. Furthermore, few materials are available to provide reading practice in special fields. The manual is unique in the reading field in that it applies principles of reading to a single area of knowledge. Instructors in the physical sciences and in related subjects will welcome a book which demonstrates for both instructors and students the application of reading principles to technical materials.

J. M. McCALLISTER

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**UNDERSTANDING OUR NEIGHBORS OF THE OTHER AMERICAS.**—Present-day developments between the United States and our neighbor republics of the Western Hemisphere have focused increased attention on Latin America. The secondary-school curriculum should provide an opportunity for pupils to become better acquainted with their American neighbors south of the Rio Grande and to understand and appreciate the problems and possibilities of those countries.

A recently published book<sup>1</sup> is designed to be used as a unit of study on Latin America. It will thus fit into situations where but a brief time may be devoted to such study. If more time is available, it can serve as a basal textbook. The volume is written particularly for pupils of high-school age. The authors are a state librarian, a high-school instructor in social studies, and a former newspaper correspondent.

The material is organized into two parts of about equal length. The seven chapters of Part I, "Latin American Lands and Peoples," are concerned with the geography, government, and cultural elements. (The term "Latin America" is used by the authors to refer to the twenty independent republics to the south of the United States.) Part II places emphasis on hemisphere solidarity and the political and economic relations between Latin America and the United States. This section includes six chapters.

There are twenty-seven illustrations, which fit in well with the text that they supplement. The thirteen maps have been carefully chosen. Considerable statistical material and well-executed diagrams and graphs correlate effectively with the rest of the book and add greatly to its completeness.

An appendix gives a list of supplementary readings on the Latin America of recent date as well as a number of bibliographies, and a glossary helps to familiarize the reader with foreign terms. At the conclusion of each chapter the authors have added a series of review and thought questions and a suggested list of things to do. If the book is used as a textbook, these features will appeal to many teachers. The organization and typography of the book are excellent.

Teachers have needed just such a treatment at the high-school level, and this book deserves wide use. The plan of organization, the pleasing style, and the introductory over-all

<sup>1</sup> James E. Downes, Nathaniel H. Singer, and Donald Becker, *Latin America and Hemisphere Solidarity*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1943. Pp. vi+238. \$1.40.

view of *Latin America and Hemisphere Solidarity* make it well adapted to use as a classroom textbook or as a ready reference. Alert teachers in many departments of high-school work can make profitable use of the materials presented in this book.

Global war has brought with it a wider realization of the need of the nations of the Americas for one another. Self-preservation has forced us to co-operate closely in the war effort. In order to achieve success, governmental action expressed through the Good Neighbor policy must be implemented with an informed and enlightened public opinion. A better understanding by the peoples of the United States of their South American neighbors is requisite to the building of a friendship and a confidence which will endure. Indifference, ignorance, and suspicion must be supplanted by sympathetic appreciation and good will. Typical of the point of view presented by the authors of this book is the following quotation.

The only lasting basis for real hemisphere solidarity is voluntary co-operation between equals—a co-operation based on mutual respect, understanding, and trust. . . . Thus the Good Neighbor policy must remain a fixed part of our political system adhered to by all succeeding administrations, and supported by a public opinion that has come to know and understand Latin Americans and to value their friendship [p. 165].

Striking differences exist in area, population, natural resources, racial stock, and in the ways of living and thinking of the peoples of these nations. To seek their friendship, we must know how to appeal to them. We must likewise strive to correct their false impressions about us. To do so, we must more fully appreciate and know of their achievements.

MARGARET MEANS

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